

EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING COMPETENCES

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ABSTRACT

Foreign language teaching is a multi-dimensional process which includes learners, parents, teachers, school, materials, administrators, resources and educational planners. Foreign language teaching competences which is one of the key factors of effective teaching of foreign languages has been a field of interest for researchers. Both pre service and in service teacher training processes have to be improved continuously in order to improve the qualities teachers have.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the foreign language teachers' perceptions on foreign language teaching competences. The data was collected by a 68 item Likert type questionnaire. The population of the study cohorts 150 teachers of English who were working in K-12 schools located in Edirne during the second semester of 2005-2006 academic year. The data were statistically analyzed and after the analysis of data the teachers' perceptions for teaching competences have been described. The teachers seem to perceive themselves competent enough in some teaching competences whereas they also state that some action has to be taken in order to improve the quality of the current foreign language teaching practices.

This study may contribute to the current efforts to improve the quality of foreign language teaching in Turkey. The more that is known about effective teaching, the more likely teachers, teacher trainers, researchers and curriculum developers may propose improvements for the improvement of foreign language teaching.

Key words: Teaching competences, Foreign language teaching competences, perceptions on teaching competences, TKT.

ÖZET

Yabancı dil öğretim süreci öğrenciler, veliler, öğretmenler, okullar, öğretim materyalleri, yöneticiler, kaynaklar ve eğitim planlayıcılarını kapsayan çok boyutlu bir süreçtir. Etkili yabancı dil öğretiminin önemli bir faktörü olan yabancı dil öğretim yeterlilikleri araştırmacılar için bir ilgi alanı olagelmıştır. Bu nedenle hem hizmet öncesi, hem de hizmet içi öğretmen yetiştirme süreçlerinin yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin yeterliliklerinin geliştirilmesi için sürekli olarak gözden geçirilmesi ve iyileştirilmesi gerekmektedir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı İngilizce öğretmenlerinin yabancı dil öğretim yeterlilikleri konusundaki algılarının belirlenmesidir. Araştırma konusu veri araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen ve 68 maddeden oluşan 5li Likert tipi anket ile toplanmıştır. Araştırmanın evreni 2005-2006 öğretim yılı 2. döneminde Edirne il ve ilçelerindeki ilk ve orta dereceli okullarda görev yapan 150 İngilizce öğretmenini kapsamaktadır. Verilerin çözümlenmesiyle öğretmenlerin yabancı dil öğretim yeterlilikleri ile ilgili algıları betimlenmiştir. Öğretmenlerin bazı yabancı dil algıları oldukça güçlü görülmekle birlikte, bazı yeterliliklerin geliştirilmesi için ek eğitim etkinliklerinin düzenlenmesi gerektiği sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Bu çalışma Türkiye’deki yabancı dil öğretim yeterlilikleri ile ilgili çalışmalara ışık tutabilecektir. Etkili öğretim ile ilgili daha çok bilgi sahibi olunması öğretmen, öğretmen yetiştirmeyle uğraşanlar, araştırmacılar ve program geliştiricilerin yabancı dil öğretiminin iyileştirilmesi konusundaki çabalarına katkı sağlayabilir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Genel öğretmen yeterlilikleri, yabancı dil öğretim yeterlilikleri, öğretmen yeterlilikleri konusundaki algılar, TKT.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In today's globalizing world, sharing knowledge may be regarded as valuable as creating knowledge. Information technology is commonly regarded as the basis of sharing information, so learning a foreign language has become more important since it is the tool for conveying knowledge. The individuals often have to learn even more than one foreign language. The efforts of European Council to promote learning more than one foreign language indicate the significance of language learning. Thus, lots of innovations have been observed in the field of foreign language teaching. The scholars' attempts to promote language learning have not been limited to suggesting new language learning materials and curriculum. However, although many researchers and professionals responsible for teacher evaluation have sought to establish criteria for assessing effective teaching, relatively little research has been conducted regarding discipline-specific teaching behaviors and attitudes of teachers (Franklin and Theall, 1995; Murray and Renaud, 1995; Schulz, 2000). The research literature suggests that there is no one single accepted definition of effective FL teaching (Reber, 2001, 10).

1.1 The Problem

The debate of affectivity of foreign language instruction has also been of one of the major concerns of Turkish educational system. One of the problems is the quantity of language teachers in Turkey. Projects like increasing the capacities of teacher training faculties, actions like training language teachers via open education and employing graduates of departments other than ELT departments after teacher training certificate programs have been taken in order to meet the demand for EFL teachers. Furthermore, contracted teachers who are graduates of non-ELT departments are being employed by the Ministry of National Education. The Ministry is currently working on a distance learning project which may be thought to have stemmed from the need to supply enough number of EFL teachers. In terms of quality, conducting in-service teacher training programs, organizing seminars and providing MA programs in ELT

have been supported by national education authorities. All these efforts may be considered as evidences of the increasing demand for competent EFL teachers.

In order to help meet the demand for effective ELT teachers, proposing a set of competences, an FL teacher should have, could have of great value. The Ministry of National Education in Turkey, has started a research project, aiming at assessing the teaching qualities of teachers. The population of this project is all teachers employed in Turkey. However, the scope of the project is limited to assessing general teaching competences. The population of the project is not only EFL teachers but also the teachers of other disciplines like mathematics, science, literature, arts etc. Assessing the subject teaching knowledge like arts, science and foreign language will most likely be the aim of another project. So it may be concluded that currently, little is known about the teaching competences of EFL teachers in Turkey.

The curriculums of EFL departments of teacher training faculties cover the objectives for teaching foreign languages and the students of these departments are educated in accordance with contemporary literature available in the field. However, due to the increasing demand for greater number of EFL teachers, some EFL teachers employed by the Ministry of Education are not graduates of ELT departments which means that they may have had little or no training in ELT. Furthermore, there has not been so much research investigating the teaching competences of in service teachers who are graduates of ELT departments. Moreover, what teachers think about the effectiveness of current foreign language instruction is a matter of interest and whether the foreign language teachers are satisfied with their current competences is not known.

1.2 Aim

By reviewing current literature on effective foreign language teaching, this research firstly aims to investigate the studies on foreign language competences. Then, the teachers' perceptions of teaching competences were compared with the competences proposed by researchers.

1.3 Research Questions

The research questions addressed in relation to the problem are as follows:

1. Are there any differences between the teachers' perceptions of teaching qualities with respect to some individual differences such as educational background, type of school the teacher is currently teaching, experience in teaching profession, gender and type of contract?
2. What are the teachers' perceptions of foreign language teaching competences on the dimension of teaching language and language skills?
3. What are the teachers' perceptions of foreign language teaching competences on the dimension of background to language learning and teaching?
4. What are the teachers' perceptions of foreign language teaching competences on the dimension of planning and managing lessons?

1.4 The Significance of the Study

Since there is not a single agreement on what effective foreign language teaching constitutes, it must first be defined and tested in different settings and be agreed on. As Reber states "the more that is known about successful foreign language teaching and learning, the more likely foreign language teachers will be to create models for foreign language teacher preparation and evaluation that reflect relevant behaviors and attitudes of foreign language teaching" (2001; 9). Turkish Ministry of National Education's efforts to assess teaching qualities are currently limited to assessing general teaching competences, and the need for assessing discipline specific teaching competences is obvious, this research may support the efforts to assess EFL teachers' competences. The findings of this research could also support the efforts to design curriculum and teaching materials for pre-service and in-service teacher training programs. Finally, this research may support the development of objective and scientific teaching competence assessment tools.

1.5 Assumptions

In the study it is assumed that the subjects responded the questionnaire items objectively and without bias.

1.6 Restrictions

This study is restricted with;

1. the second semester of the academic year 2005-2006,
2. 123 subjects who are teachers of English as a foreign language in the state and private schools located in Edirne.

1.7 Terms and Concepts

Foreign Language Teaching Competence: Foreign Language Teaching Competence in this research is defined as it is defined in TKT syllabus. TKT has three main dimensions which are language and background to language learning and teaching, lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching and managing the teaching and learning process respectively. Foreign language teaching competence is assessed within this framework (Spratt, et.al., 2005).

Language and Background to Language Learning and Teaching: This dimension covers the teachers' knowledge of terms and concepts common in English language teaching. It also focuses on the factors underpinning the knowledge of the range and functions of the pedagogic choices the teacher has at his disposal to cater for these learning factors (Cambridge ESOL, 2005).

Lesson Planning and Use of Resources for Language Teaching: This dimension covers the factors teachers consider and do while planning their teaching of a lesson or series of lessons. Teaching in this context is intended also to refer to assessment. It focuses too on the linguistic and methodological reference resources that are available to guide teachers in their lesson planning as well as on the range and function of materials and teaching aids that teachers could consider making use of in their lessons. Knowledge of any particular book is not required (Cambridge ESOL, 2005).

Managing the Teaching and Learning Process: This dimension covers teachers' knowledge of what happens in the classroom in terms of the language used by the teacher or learners, the roles the teacher can fulfill and the ways in which the teacher can manage and exploit classroom events and interaction.

1.8 Abbreviations

CEF: The Common European Framework

CoE: Council of Europe

TBLT: Task Based Language Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ACTFL: The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

NADSFL National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages

FL: Foreign Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

PPP: Present, Practice, Produce

1.9 Literature Review

Teaching competences have been a field of interest for researchers. There are a number of researchers working on the teaching competences, yet no consensus has been reached on the teaching competences. What is more, the studies on teaching competences are mainly on general teaching competences, and these general competences may not fit well to specific disciplines. Moreover, there is not complete agreement between the competence proposals of the researchers working on the same discipline. Below, some research projects conducted on teaching competences and foreign language teaching competences are given.

In one of his research, conducted with 49 teachers and 1400 students, Brown (2006) explores L2 teachers' and L2 students' perceptions of effective L2 teaching by analyzing matches and mismatches between each group's perception of what they feel an effective L2 teacher should know and be doing in the classroom. The concrete manifestation of these perceptions of effective teaching, in the classroom, is addressed via teaching evaluations. He aimed at identifying and comparing post-secondary L2 students' and L2 teachers' perceptions of effective teaching behaviors; comparing

students' evaluations of teaching to that of the instructors. It was found that the teachers and the students have very different perceptions on what should be done in the classroom, and what is being done, and how effectively being done. Statistically significant differences were found between teachers and students overall covered issues such as immediate error correction, task based teaching, students' use of FL early on, use of pair and small-group work, and grammar teaching. It was also found that students and teachers had differing opinions regarding grammar teaching and the usefulness of communicative language teaching strategies with students favoring a more traditional, grammar-based approach and teachers favoring a communicative FL classroom.

In another research conducted by Reber (2001) teacher perceptions concerning the teaching behaviors and attitudes that contribute to effective FL teaching and learning was investigated. In order to collect data an 80-item five point Likert questionnaire was administered to 457 ACTFL member post-secondary FL teachers of Spanish, French, and German. Based on current research on second language acquisition, on pedagogical theories underlying current teaching methodologies, and on teaching behaviors and attitudes found to be effective in the field of general education, various teaching behaviors and attitudes of effective FL teachers were identified for inclusion on the questionnaire. The results indicated that there was emerging professional consensus regarding a number of teacher behaviors and attitudes related to FL teaching.

Chacon (2005) in her study titled "Teachers' perceived efficacy among English as a foreign language teachers in middle schools in Venezuela" explored self efficacy beliefs among EFL teachers. The study included both descriptive and correlational analyses as well as interviews with a purposeful sample. The population of the study comprised 100 EFL middle school teachers from Venezuela. The data were collected by the instrument "English Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale" which comprised five subscales. The means in the three subscales suggested that participants judged themselves more efficacious for instructional strategies than for management and engagement. This finding indicated that the participants judged their abilities to motivate students to learn English as low, while they perceived themselves more capable in designing instructional strategies, providing explanations, and assessing

students as well as in managing student behaviors. The results indicated a positive relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy and language proficiency. Teachers' judgments about their teaching competence influence EFL teachers' practice in terms of efforts, goals and challenges they set up for themselves and for their students.

Park and Lee (2006), in their study "Characteristics of Effective English Teachers Perceived by High School Teachers and Students in Korea" investigated the characteristics of effective English teachers perceived by 169 teachers and 339 students in high school in Korea, with a self-report questionnaire consisting of three categories: English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, and socio-affective skills. Overall, in all the three categories the teachers perceived significantly different from the students. The teachers' ranked English proficiency higher than students whereas students ranked pedagogical knowledge higher. The student subgroups also held different perceptions to effective teaching. The high achievement students reported different characteristics from the low achievement students in pedagogical knowledge and socio-affective skills, whereas the male students demonstrated different characteristics from the female students in socio-affective skills. The findings provide implications to knowledge-based teacher education for current and prospective English teachers.

Ministry of National Education in Turkey (2002) has started a project on general teaching qualities. The research was conducted in six pilot cities including Ankara, Hatay, Kocaeli, Bolu, Van and İzmir. The initial aim was to set the general teaching competences and then to set the discipline specific teaching competences. In the study six general teaching competence categories were specified. These are personal and professional values, professional development, analyzing the learner, teaching and learning process, assessing learning and development, relations of school with the families and the society, program and content knowledge. Discipline specific teaching competences are still being worked on.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This chapter includes review of foreign language teaching techniques, methods approaches and principles with particular attention on the foreign language teaching competences they impose.

2.1 A Brief History of Trends in Foreign Language Teaching

There have been many changes in the field of foreign language teaching throughout the history. Celce-Murcia (2001; 3) believes that one reason for the frequent swings of the pendulum that have been taking place until fairly recently is the fact that very few language teachers have a sense of history about their profession and are thus unaware of the historical bases of the many methodological options they have at their disposal. So it may be useful to have a look at the changes throughout the history to better comprehend and evaluate the new trends in the field.

The practices we observe today are different from those that were applied in the 18th and 19th centuries. During 18th and 19th centuries, foreign language learning and teaching mainly meant learning Latin and Greek which were the lingua francas of the period. The aim of learning Latin was not to communicate but to develop logical thinking and intellectual capacities. So the focus was on learning grammar rules, syntactic structures, rote memorization of vocabulary and translating. Accuracy was superior to fluency. The teacher was the authority in the classroom and he was the source of all information and materials. Since accuracy was superior to fluency, the teacher was also responsible for explaining the rules and providing 100 percent correct feedback for errors. So grammar translation method was the popular method of the time which fitted the need of analyzing the language rather than using it.

During the years of World War II, however, it was discovered that memorizing vocabulary, learning grammar rules and translating did not help using language, which was vital. The theory of language underlining Audiolingualism was derived from a view proposed by American linguists. The language teaching theoreticians and methodologists who developed Audiolingualism not only had a convincing and

powerful theory of language to draw upon, but they were also working in a period when a prominent school of American psychology – known as behavioral psychology – was prominent (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; 56). Stimulus – response and reinforcement became the psychological foundations of Audiolingualism. Language learning was regarded as habit formation. The teacher's role was directing and controlling students' behavior, providing a model, and reinforcing correct responses. But its popularity waned after 1964, partly because of Wilga Rivers' exposure of its shortcomings. It fell short of promoting communicative ability as it paid undue attention to memorization and drilling, while downgrading the role of context and world knowledge in language learning. After all, it was discovered that language was not acquired through a process of habit formation and errors were not necessarily bad or pernicious. Moreover, as Thanasoulas (2006) states, “the need for communication has been relentless, leading to the emergence of the Communicative Language Teaching”.

In reaction to the behaviorist view of FL learning, the nativists, headed by Chomsky (1959), believed that “children are biologically programmed for language learning, that language develops in a child in a similar way that other biological functions (such as walking) develop, and that the societal environment only triggers a child's L1 acquisition through comprehensible input” (Reber, 2001; 65). The Chomskyan revolution in linguistics drew the attention of linguists and language teachers to the "deep structure" of language, while psychologists took account of the affective and interpersonal nature of learning. As a result, new methods were proposed, which attempted to capitalize on the importance of psychological factors in language learning (Thanasoulas, 2006). The behaviorist view of learning in terms of conditioning, shaping, reinforcement, habit-formation and over learning has been replaced by an emphasis on rule learning, meaningful practice and creativity proposed by the cognitive psychologists such as Ausubel (Demirel, 2004; 40). In cognitive code approach, language learning was viewed as rule acquisition not habit formation, and instruction was often individualized. In other words, learners are responsible for their own learning. The teacher was expected to have good general proficiency in the target language as well as an ability to analyze the target language. However, the lack of affective considerations of both Audiolingualism and Cognitive Code Approach was again

criticized by linguists and teacher trainers since the new trend was that language was for communication.

Communicative Language Teaching marks the beginning of a major paradigm shift within language teaching in the twentieth century. “Another impetus for different approaches to foreign language teaching came from changing educational realities in Europe” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; 154). Council of Europe (CoE) was founded in 1949 and two of the aims of the organization were to develop continent-wide agreements to standardize member countries’ social and legal practices and to promote awareness of a European identity based on shared values and cutting across different cultures. CoE aims at promoting democracy, human rights and rule of law. “Approaches which emphasize learner autonomy and co-operation are seen not just as effective teaching methods, but as having value in themselves” (Heyworth, 2004; 13). For these reasons, CoE has long seen the promotion of language teaching as one of its major priority areas, with the development of inter-cultural awareness viewed as an essential part of the development of competence in another language or other languages (Morrow, 2004; 7). CoE’s political considerations may be thought as one of the major needs for teaching foreign languages with communicative priorities. The emphasis on more learner autonomy and learner centeredness calls for more demanding and challenging roles for foreign language teachers. The teacher’s role is not being the only source of information but being the counselor of obtaining information. The teacher is not the authority in the classroom but the facilitator of communication between the students, and between the students and information. To fulfill this role what the teacher needs is a variety of specific skills to apply this knowledge to the learning experiences of the classroom. These skills include “a high degree of language knowledge; a critical, flexible, and experimental approach to teaching; an understanding of the interplay of process and product in language learning; and the ability to apply this awareness in classroom procedures and techniques” (Sheils, 1986). Other roles assumed for the teachers may be listed as needs analyst, counselor, group process manager, researcher, advisor and co-participant. Although new ideas like Competency Based Language Teaching, Content Based Instruction, Cooperative Learning, Lexical Approaches, Multiple Intelligences, Neurolinguistic Programming, Task Based Language Learning and Whole Learning have aroused interest of teachers and teacher trainers, we can not

say that they caused a major paradigm shift as communicative approach did. The reason for this could be the fact that all these new ideas aim at perfecting the communicative aspect of language teaching. So, communicative Language Teaching may be considered as the source of inspiration for these approaches. Teachers and teacher trainers are still in search of making individuals communicate in a foreign language. For these reasons the set of foreign language teaching competences that the teachers should have seems to be becoming more demanding everyday.

2.2 Defining Effective Foreign Language Teaching

Although there are many variables affecting the success of foreign language teaching, the teacher may still be considered as the key element of success in teaching foreign language. The qualities of methods, approaches, materials and syllabuses are often evaluated and criticized. However, relatively little research has been conducted on foreign language teaching competences. Although general teaching competences have been studied by relatively more researchers (Aleamoni, 1981; Delamere, 1986; Doyle, 1977, Perry and Rog, 1992), the general competences may not be the absolute solution for defining competences for a specific discipline. For example, immediate correction may be useful in a mathematics class as accuracy is important, but in a foreign language class, it may hinder communication. However, as Reber points out “research literature suggests that there is no one single accepted definition of effective foreign language teaching” (2001; 33). In order to show this variety, this part aims at compiling different views on foreign language teaching competences.

In literature the first attempt to identify characteristics of effective foreign language instruction is seen in the United States. The National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages (NADSFL) has identified the characteristics of effective foreign language instruction in 1999. These characteristics have been based on the learning standards identified by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). The standards focus on the five goal areas of Communication, Connections, Comparisons, Cultures, and Communities, it is often called the 5C s. The identified national standards for foreign language learning are as follows (ACTFL, 1996):

A- Communication

Communicate in Languages Other Than English

1. Students engage in conversations, provide and obtain information, express feelings and emotions, and exchange opinions
2. Students understand and interpret written and spoken language on a variety of topics
3. Students present information, concepts, and ideas to an audience of listeners or readers on a variety of topics.

B- Cultures

Gain Knowledge and Understanding of Other Cultures

1. Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the culture studied
2. Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the products and perspectives of the culture studied

C- Connections

Connect with Other Disciplines and Acquire Information

1. Students reinforce and further their knowledge of other disciplines through the foreign language
2. Students acquire information and recognize the distinctive viewpoints that are only available through the foreign language and its cultures

D- Comparisons

Develop Insight into the Nature of Language and Culture

1. Students demonstrate understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the language studied and their own
2. Students demonstrate understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own.

E- Communities

Participate in Multilingual Communities at Home & Around the World

1. Students use the language both within and beyond the school setting
2. Students show evidence of becoming life-long learners by using the language for personal enjoyment and enrichment

Since the characteristics of effective foreign language instruction identified by NADSFL (1999) were based on the learning standards, they also reflect the importance of language learning strategies, diverse learning styles, the use of authentic cultural documents, and the use of technology as an instructional tool. The Characteristics are a companion resource to the National Standards for Foreign Language Learning, state frameworks, and local curriculum guides. The characteristics of effective foreign language instruction are as follows (NADSFL, 1999):

1. The teacher sets high expectations for all students, designs assessment, and organizes instruction to engage and motivate all learners.
2. The teacher and students communicate purposefully in the target language as listeners, speakers, readers, writers, and viewers.
3. There is more student activity than teacher activity in most lessons. Student activity includes student to student interactions as well as teacher to student interactions. Students work independently, in pairs, and in groups. Students ask and answer questions and they create with language.
4. Students take risks as language learners because the learning environment is positive and supportive.
5. When error correction is appropriate, students are given opportunities, including wait-time, to self-correct. Teacher correction of student errors is often done through follow-up review and re-teaching strategies.
6. Assessments are ongoing. Students are assessed formally and informally on how well they are able to meet the objectives of the lesson. Continuous self-assessments for students and teachers are encouraged.
7. Students use language specific learning strategies and are encouraged to assess their own progress.
8. Culture is a natural component of language use in all activities.
9. All students are guided to use all levels of thinking skills, e.g., they repeat, recognize, and recall as well as apply, create, and predict.
10. The diverse learning styles of all students are considered in the teacher's instructional planning.

11. Students have positive attitudes toward cultural diversity which are often demonstrated in the learning environment.
12. The physical environment including displays of student work is instructional, motivational, and informative.
13. Students and teachers are not text-bound during instructional time. It is obvious that the text is a tool, not the curriculum.
14. Students and teachers use a variety of print and non-print materials including authentic target language sources.
15. Technology, as appropriate and available, is used by students and teachers to facilitate learning and teaching.

Another set of competences for foreign language teaching was proposed by Cambridge University ESOL in its Teaching Knowledge Test syllabus. TKT tests knowledge of teaching English to Speakers of other Languages. The teaching knowledge in TKT comprises three main category under which some sub-components included. The main categories and the sub-components are (Cambridge ESOL, 2005);

I. Language and background to language learning and teaching

1. Describing language and language skills

- a. Grammar
- b. Lexis
- c. Phonology
- d. Functions
- e. Reading
- f. Writing
- g. Listening
- h. Speaking

2. Background to language learning

- a. Motivation
- b. Exposure to focus on form
- c. The role of error
- d. Differences between L1 and L2 learning
- e. Learner characteristics
- f. Learner needs

3. Background to language teaching

- a. Presentation techniques and introductory activities
- b. Practice activities and tasks for language and skills development
- c. Assessment types and tasks

II. Lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching

1. Planning and preparing a lesson or sequence of lessons
 - a. Identifying and selecting aims
 - b. Identifying the different components of a lesson plan
 - c. Planning an individual lesson or sequence of lessons
 - d. Choosing assessment activities
2. Selection and use of resources and materials
 - a. Consulting reference resources to help in lesson preparation
 - b. Selection and use of course book materials
 - c. Selection and use of supplementary materials and activities
 - d. Selection and use of aids

III. Managing the teaching and learning process

1. Teachers' and Learners' language in the classroom
 - a. Using language appropriately for a range of classroom functions
 - b. Identifying the functions of learners' language
 - c. Categorizing learners' mistakes
2. Classroom management
 - a. Teacher roles
 - b. Grouping students
 - c. Correcting learners
 - d. Giving feedback

INTASC (2002) (Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium) outlines what beginning K-12 foreign language teachers within their first three years of experience should know and be able to do to guide students effectively in learning a language other than their mother tongue and in understanding the cultures of the people who speak that language. The INTASC Core Principles served as the basic guide in framing these standards. The Core Principles outline what all beginning teachers, regardless of subject matter or grade level, should know and be able to do. The charge to the INTASC Foreign Language Committee was to take the Core Principles and translate them into what good teaching looks like in the context of teaching a foreign language. Below are summary statements of the standards for beginning foreign language teachers (Model Standards for Beginning Teacher Licensing and Development: A Resource for State Dialogue, 2002).

1. Content Knowledge: Language teachers are proficient in the language they teach. They understand language as a system, how students learn a language, and how language and culture are linked. They are

knowledgeable about the cultures of the people who speak the language. Using this knowledge, they create learning experiences that help students develop language proficiency and build cultural understanding.

2. **Learner Development:** Language teachers understand how students learn and develop and can relate this to their development of language proficiency and cultural understanding. They provide learning experiences that are appropriate to and support learners' development.
3. **Diversity of Learners:** Language teachers understand how learners differ in their knowledge, experiences, abilities, needs, and approaches to language learning, and create instructional opportunities and environments that are appropriate for the learner and that reflect learner diversity.
4. **Instructional Strategies:** Language teachers understand and use a variety of instructional strategies to help learners develop language proficiency, build cultural understanding, and foster critical thinking skills.
5. **Learning Environment:** Language teachers create an interactive, engaging, and supportive learning environment that encourages student self-motivation and promotes their language learning and cultural understanding.
6. **Communication:** Language teachers use effective verbal and non-verbal communication, and multi-media resources, to foster language development and cultural understanding.
7. **Planning for Instruction:** Language teachers plan instruction based on their knowledge of the target language and cultures, learners, standards-based curriculum, and the learning context.
8. **Assessment:** Language teachers understand and use a variety of assessment strategies to monitor student learning, to inform language and culture instruction, and to report student progress.
9. **Reflective Practice and Professional Development:** Language teachers are reflective practitioners who continually evaluate the effects of their choices and actions on others and who actively seek out opportunities to grow professionally.
10. **Community:** Language teachers foster relationships with school colleagues, families and agencies in the larger community to support students' learning and well-being.

When the standards are analyzed, it may be concluded that the overall organization of standards emphasize teaching language as a communication tool, learner needs and the importance of planning the teaching and learning process. The details of the concepts contain topics like teaching culture, fostering critical thinking, treating errors as a natural process of learning, learner autonomy and individual differences, using technology for instruction and assessment. The studies conducted by some researchers (Molica and Nuessel, 1997; Penner, 1992) provide support to the attempts mentioned above. Molica and Nuessel outline traits of good language teachers as: professional training such as professional meetings and instructional techniques; language proficiency such as four skills and cultural comprehension; instructional materials such as visual and audio materials; evaluation such as assessment of students and professional testing and classroom environment such as reduction of second language anxiety and maintenance of classroom discipline (1997; 2). Penner (1992) considers effective foreign language teaching to be the result of classroom communication and states that the key to effective foreign language teaching is “the ability of the teacher to adequately communicate to the student and the student’s ability and opportunity to respond and demonstrate some competence in reproducing what he has learned by formulating in his own words the facts and concepts that now illuminate his mind.

2.3 Teaching Grammar

Grammar teaching has been one of the most debatable issues of the foreign language teaching. When Grammar Translation Method was the popular method for teaching foreign languages, it was widely accepted that foreign language teaching was the acquisition of formal rule knowledge. So the teachers of the period used to make their students analyze grammar rules in detail. In other words, the students were studying rules for the sake of learning grammar which was important for becoming proficient in a foreign language. However, the specialists’ current views on grammar teaching are now quite different. The contemporary view on grammar teaching is that students should study grammar for the sake of communication, not for the sake of becoming grammar specialists. In NCRLC (2004) it is stated that the goal of grammar instruction is to enable students to carry out their communication purposes. This goal has three implications:

- Students need overt instruction that connects grammar points with larger communication contexts.
- Students do not need to master every aspect of each grammar point, only those that are relevant to the immediate communication task.
- Error correction is not always the instructor's first responsibility.

The contemporary aim of learning a foreign language is the need to communicate, the aim of studying the grammar has evolved from mastering the grammar of a foreign language to learning grammar for communication. In this context procedures followed in a typical grammar teaching class can be outlined as follows:

- The teacher begins with an exercise, game; listening, etc. that introduces the grammar concept.
- The teacher asks students questions that will help them identify the grammar concept to be discussed.
- The lesson follows with another exercise that more specifically focuses on the grammar concept, but takes an inductive approach. This could be a reading exercise with questions and responses in the structure that is being taught.
- The teacher checks responses by asking students to explain the grammar concept that has been introduced.
- At this point teaching explanations are introduced as a way of clearing up misunderstandings.
- The teacher provides an exercise which focuses on the correct construction of the grammar point. This could be an exercise such as a fill the gap, cloze or tense conjugation activity.
- The teacher asks students to once again explain the concept.

As it can be seen, the teacher is facilitating students to do their own learning rather than using the 'top down' approach of dictating rules to the class (Beare, 2006). For an effective grammar instruction, some vital concepts the teachers should consider could be outlined as follows:

- Learning grammar rules may foster learning a language. However, young learners can not learn complex structures. So it will be useless to force young learners to learn structure.
- Teaching grammar is not only teaching structure. Teaching functions and language in use must also be integrated to grammar instruction.
- Grammatical accuracy is important but exaggerating accuracy may hinder fluency.

2.4 Teaching Vocabulary

Vocabulary is crucial for getting or conveying a message since the message can not be encoded or decoded without knowing the meaning of words. Vocabulary teaching is a central factor of communication. When audio-lingual method was the popular method for teaching foreign languages, vocabulary teaching was neglected since grammatical and phonological structures were considered as the key elements of learning a foreign language. Learning was habit formation, and the teachers often had to make use of mechanical drills. Teaching enough vocabulary to make drilling possible seems to be the major aim of teaching vocabulary. The status of vocabulary teaching is different now. Communicative language teaching promotes the superiority of fluency over accuracy. According to Skehan fluency concerns the learner's capacity to produce language in real time without undue pausing for hesitation and "it is likely to rely upon more lexicalized modes of communication, as the pressures of real-time speech production met only by avoiding excessive rule-based computation" (1996; 21-22).

There are some challenges to teaching vocabulary. In example, there are thousands of words in a foreign language, which words should be taught? Or can we teach vocabulary to young learners as we do to adults?

Decarrico suggests that learners should initially be taught at least two thousand high frequency words since the actual figures for English suggest that a basic vocabulary of about two thousand words accounts for approximately 80 percent of what we regularly see or hear (2001; 287). Confining the vocabulary to a few hundred words would limit the potential to communicate in real life situations. The teachers generally teach the vocabulary presented by the course book. However, extending the range of

vocabulary within the course book according to learners' needs should not be neglected. Another points teachers should consider in teaching vocabulary is teaching different kinds of meanings. In beginning levels teachers may tend to teach only the denotation of words. However, "really knowing a word means knowing all its different kinds of meanings" Spratt, et. al. (2005:11). Other aspects of learning new words entail learning its form (part of speech), pronunciation and correct spelling. Before a word is learned, it may have to be presented several times in the classroom. Vocabulary items may be presented as pre-activities of other language skills.

2.5 Teaching Pronunciation

Teachers often lead their students to study grammar, vocabulary and language skills but pronunciation seems to be neglected. One reason for this may be fact that especially non-native teachers do not feel themselves competent enough at sounds, stress, intonation and linking. Another reason may be the fact that students can pronounce words just by imitating their teachers without a conscious emphasis on pronunciation study. Although the learners can acquire pronunciation, formal instruction on aspects of pronunciation such as how sounds are formed, word stress, sentence stress, intonation and phonological differences of native and target language could provide learners improved speaking competence and motivation. Furthermore, pronunciation and listening comprehension are also inter-connected since listeners have to know what intonation patterns mean to comprehend the message accurately.

One of these problems in teaching phonology one could confront with is, which accent has to be focused on. English is spoken as a native language in England, U.S.A and Australia. It is also spoken as an international language all around the world. Which accents should be the model in a pronunciation class? Speakers of foreign languages also tend to retain their own accent; for example, they speak English with an African accent since they want to reflect their cultural identity. According to Harmer (2001; 184):

Under the pressure of such cultural considerations it has become customary for language teachers to consider intelligibility as the prime goal of pronunciation teaching. This implies that the students should be able to use pronunciation which is good enough for them to be able to use pronunciation which is good enough for them to be always understood. If their pronunciation is not up to this

standard, it is thought, then there is a serious danger that they will fail to communicate effectively.

If intelligibility is the main concern, then stress and intonation as being important meaning carriers are of greater importance. According to Wei what we need to cover in a pronunciation class are intonation, stress (word level stress, sentence level stress, linking), rhythm, consonants (substitution, omission, articulation, clusters and linking) and vowels (substitution, articulation, length, reduction and linking) (2006; 1).

Scarcella and Oxford made a comparison of research-based approach and traditional approach for pronunciation instruction as in the following table (1994: 225):

Table 1: Researched based and traditional approaches for teaching pronunciation

Research-based approach	Traditional approach
The goal is to gain sufficient pronunciation skills so that the quality of pronunciation will not inhibit communication.	The goal of instruction is to acquire native like pronunciation.
Instead of putting the emphasis on sounds, teachers concentrate on stress and intonation.	The primary emphasis is teaching sounds.
The emphasis of instruction is on teaching pronunciation communicatively.	Sound segments are taught non-communicatively through drills of isolated words.
The teacher provides students with phonetic descriptions only when they are helpful to students in tutorials.	Phonetic descriptions are a primary component of traditional pronunciation classes.
The student's motivation is seen as central to successful language instruction. The student plays a primary role in improving pronunciation. Self-monitoring skills and awareness strategies are taught.	Students do not take responsibility for improving their own pronunciation.
Affect is critical in pronunciation instruction. Students learn specific relaxation activities to lower anxieties and resistance to improving pronunciation.	Affect is not viewed as important in instructional activities.

To conclude what has been discussed so far, the key concepts that the teachers should consider in pronunciation classes could be listed as follows:

1. Teachers should include different aspects of pronunciation in foreign language classes.
2. Uttering sounds that could be widely understood is superior to uttering native like sounds.
3. Students should be encouraged to monitor and improve their pronunciation.
4. Teaching rhythm and intonation should be superior to just teaching sounds.
5. Phonetic transcriptions are not the ultimate goal of studying pronunciation but a tool of uttering comprehensible sounds.
6. English has become an international language, so there are many people speaking with different accents. Focusing on different accents in pronunciation classes would be useful.

2.6 Teaching Reading

Reading, which is a receptive language skill, is vital for language learning. Reading is the most common way of acquiring information. Individuals usually learn by reading printed material or electronic resources. Reading in a foreign language is also important since information technology has made global information sharing easier and the common language for international communication is usually English. Teaching reading has always been a key goal for language teachers, especially at the beginning of the 20th century.

Because of being a receptive skill, it is sometimes considered as a passive skill. However, reading is an active skill since the reader applies many skills and strategies while he is reading. Reading skill can not be confined to being just a decoding process of making sense of letters. Just recognizing letters and associating them with sounds does not prove successful reading. Comprehension of words, phrases and sentences may not always make us get the exact message of the author. Recognizing the relation between two sentences and recognizing the grammatical links between sentences (coherence and cohesion) are also important for reading comprehension. So teaching reading in a foreign language calls for integrating many processes.

Teaching effective reading may begin by diagnosing the weak skills of learners. According to Mei-yun some problems students have in reading are as follows (1988; 182):

1. Reading word by word, relying too heavily on their visual information, generally impedes their reading speed and hampers their comprehension.
2. Focusing too much attention on form at the expense of meaning.
3. Paying too much attention to details, with the result that they often miss the main ideas and see only the trees instead of the forest.
4. A small reading vocabulary and heavy reliance on the use of the dictionary for word meaning.
5. Limited background knowledge.

These problems could be resulting from the exaggerated emphasis on accuracy and poor instruction on how to read more effectively. Teaching effective reading involves teaching the sub-skills of reading. Mei-yun classifies sub-skills of reading as follows (1988, 182):

1. Word attack skills (Using context clues and using structural information)
2. Reading in meaningful units
3. Scanning
4. Skimming
5. Prediction
6. Recognizing organizational patterns
7. Distinguishing general statements from specific details
8. Inference and conclusion
9. Evaluation and appreciation.

It is also vital to include extensive and intensive reading in teaching reading process. Extensive reading is learner's own reading for pleasure or intellectual development. The learner's own needs are important in extensive reading. The reader may skip or skim some parts of the text, or he may read some parts in detail. Intensive reading on the other hand, is reading for specific purposes. Especially in foreign language classrooms, the students are asked to read a text in order to study the

grammatical items, specific vocabulary or the text organization within a text. The aim here is to practice language items.

Some issues teachers should consider for teaching reading could be listed as follows:

1. Reading is an active skill and it involves using many skills and strategies. Teachers should focus on different sub-skills of reading in their classes.
2. Learners already have some L1 reading competences. The strengths of the students in L1 reading could be transferred to reading in a foreign language.
3. The teachers should encourage their students for extensive reading in or outside the school.
4. The reading texts should arouse interest in learners. The texts, about which learners already have background information, should be chosen. The language level of the texts should fit the learner's language level.
5. Using authentic texts is beneficial for learners since they contain rich vocabulary and cultural items. However, simplified texts can also be used when language level of the learners is not enough to comprehend authentic texts and when the focus is on a specific set of vocabulary and grammar items. Spratt et. al (2005) claim that learners learn to read best when simplified and authentic texts are used in balance.
6. Teachers should use different texts concentrating on different reading sub-skills. Some texts require inferencing and some may require recognizing organizational clues.
7. The comprehension tasks and activities should be chosen carefully. Difficult texts could be made easier by using easier activities and easy texts could be made more difficult by using difficult comprehension activities.

2.7 Teaching Listening

Listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying. This involves understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, his grammar and his vocabulary and grasping his meaning (Howatt and Dakin, 1974). Demirel (2004) states that the objective of the listening comprehension program should be to train the students to understand, and respond appropriately to the kind of language they are most likely to

hear in normal use. Although listening is one of the language skills, listening seems to be neglected by teachers of foreign language. Morley states that, the status of listening began to change from one of neglect to one of increasing importance (2001; 69). Brown (1983) observed a significant number of published courses on listening comprehension and classroom practices in many schools in many countries continued to demonstrate that listening was regarded as the least important skill. Matthews also points out the neglected position by saying that “in many schools, listening practice is hardly touched on-or if it was, it would be incidental or even accidental” (1985; 60). The status of listening is now different. The prominence of listening has been better recognized and it is now seen as an important element of foreign language learning. “An appropriate aural comprehension program that targets learner listening at all levels of instruction is an essential for second language competence” (Morley, 2001; 70). However, it seems that we have to work harder on teaching listening since the weakest skills of students still seem to be the listening. So, teaching listening effectively is a key competence for foreign language teachers.

We can not say that the learners have problems with listening mostly because it is neglected by the teachers. The learners also face with some problems due to the nature of listening. Yagang lists problems associated with listening as follows (1993; 190):

1. The message: Many learners find it more difficult to listen to a taped message than to read the same message on a piece of paper. The learner can return back to the part of the text to re read and fully comprehend the message. However, while listening there learner can not always rewind the tape and re-listen. This often creates frustration and the learner gives up listening. Messages on radio or tape can not be played at a slower speed, whereas the learners have the chance to read slower to better comprehend the message. Sometimes, listening materials are made up of everyday conversation and contain informal English. The learners are familiar with formal English in the books and they find it difficult to comprehend texts containing informal words and utterances. In spontaneous conversations people sometimes use ungrammatical sentences because of nervousness or hesitation. They may omit elements of sentences or add something

redundant. This may make it difficult for the listener to understand the meaning.

2. The speaker: Ur (1984; 7) points out that “we actually say a good deal more than would appear to be necessary in order to convey our message. Redundant utterances may take the form of repetitions, false starts, rephrasings, self corrections, elaborations, tautologies, and apparently meaningless additions such as *I mean* or *you know*. This redundancy may be either a help or a hindrance, depending on the level of the student”. Another problem is accent. Learners usually acquire their teacher’s accent or formal British or American accent. When they listen to a text in a different accent, it is difficult for them to comprehend the message in that accent.
3. The listener: Foreign language students are not familiar enough with clichés and collocations in English to predict a missing word or phrase. They can not, for example, be expected to know that *rosy* often collocates with *cheeks* nor to predict the last word will be something like *rage* when they hear the phrase *he was in a towering...*. This is a major problem for students.
4. Physical Setting: Background noises on tape and the noise coming out of the classroom can irritate the students and they can stop getting concentrating on the message. The echo in the classroom also distracts students’ attention. Audio recordings lack visual clues (mimics, gestures). Lastly, poor quality equipment makes some sounds impossible to catch. Especially unknown words are very difficult to guess when some sounds are not clear.

In listening classes teachers often observe problems cited above. For a more effective listening instruction Peterson suggests the following principles (2001; 89):

1. Increase the amount of listening time in the second language class: To increase the amount of listening practice, new vocabulary and grammar items could be presented using listening. Choosing interesting listening texts may motivate students for listening.

2. Use listening before other activities: Especially for warm-up and brainstorming stages, choosing listening texts could be helpful.
3. Include both global and selective listening: Global listening encourages students to get the gist, main idea, topic, situation or setting. Selective listening points student attention to details of form and encourages accuracy.
4. Activate top level skills: Giving advance organizers, script activators, or discussions call up learners' background knowledge.
5. Work towards automaticity in processing: The teacher should include exercises which build recognition and retention of the material.
6. Develop conscious listening strategies: Learners have different strategy choices. They usually apply some strategies unconsciously. Raising learners' consciousness on listening strategies may promote their comprehension.

Contrary to reading, learners do not just try to get the meaning from the text but they also have to understand the speaker's accent and pronunciation. While reading, the learners can easily decode the written information. But in listening they have to first decode the aural message, which may sometimes be difficult due to accent differences, poor quality and background noise of the tape. Unknown words are also a problem. When a learner faces an unknown word in a reading text, it is easy to look it up in a dictionary since all the letters of the word are obvious. However, in listening texts, the letters of unknown words may not be exactly written since some sounds can not be caught by the listener. The competence of sub-skills of listening is important for successful listening. Willis identifies a list of listening micro-skills (1981; 189):

- a. Predicting what people are going to talk about
- b. Guessing at unknown words without panicking
- c. Using one's own knowledge of the subject to help one understand
- d. Identifying relevant points; rejecting irrelevant information
- e. Retaining relevant points (by note-taking, summarizing)
- f. Recognizing discourse markers, cohesive devices, linking words, etc
- g. Understanding different intonation patterns and uses of stress
- h. Understanding inferred information

Spratt et al (2005) point out that listening involves doing many things: dealing with the characteristics of spoken language; using the context and our knowledge of the world; understanding different text types; understanding different speeds of speech and accents; using different listening subskills.

When all the suggestions given above are considered, for an effective teaching of listening the following key principles may be listed:

1. Listening both authentic and simplified texts may be helpful for learners. The teacher must establish a balance between authentic and simplified texts.
2. Learners listening skills may be developed by focusing regularly on different aspects of listening like problem sounds, features of connected speech and sub-skills.
3. To practice listening, different sources of spoken language should be used in the classroom i.e. visitors, videos, TV broadcasts.
4. Strategy training and making students be aware of the sub-skills of listening may develop listening competence of students.

2.8 Teaching Writing

Being one of the four language skills, writing has always been included in the foreign language teaching syllabuses. Although reading was the dominant skill in the past, since English became an international language, writing has become more important for professional and academic needs of the learners. In addition, learners' competences of a foreign language are often assessed by written tasks. CEF includes keeping written works of learners in a language portfolio. The written data collected from learners make a valuable source for giving feedback on their progress. The aim of writing varies with the language level of students. In elementary level classes the focus of teaching writing is to facilitate learning the language. In advanced level, the focus is teaching writing for communicative purposes. No matter what the level of learner is writing is a key skill for successful communication.

Learning of writing is often regarded as the learning of the mechanics of translating, either speech into writing, or meaning into visual symbols (Kress, 1982; 5).

According to Demirel learning to write in English involves “choosing the right vocabulary items to express one’s thoughts, using the grammatical patterns of the language correctly, and observing certain conventions of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and paraphrasing which have become standard for written English” (2004; 92). However, the case is not as clear as it seems. There are some challenges associated with teaching and learning writing in a foreign language. Nunan considers it an enormous challenge to produce “a coherent, fluent, extended piece of writing” in one’s second language. This is magnified by the fact that the rhetorical conventions of English texts —the structure, style, and organization— often differ from the conventions in other languages (1999; 271). It requires effort to recognize and manage the differences (Leki, 1991). Some problems associated with teaching writing may be outlined as, exaggerated focus on accuracy, dealing with final product rather than working on process, lack of content based writing and inefficient feedback.

Writing process goes through a number of certain stages. These stages may be outlined as prewriting (Brainstorming, making notes and organizing the ideas), drafting, editing and proof reading. The writing skill includes a number of subskills. According to Sobana, writing involves going through the following stages (2003; 26):

1. Mechanics: handwriting, spelling, punctuation
2. Word selection: vocabulary, idioms, tone
3. Organization: paragraphs, topic and support, cohesion and unit
4. Syntax: sentence structure, sentence boundaries, stylistics, etc.
5. Grammar: rules of verbs, agreement, articles, pronouns, etc.
6. Content: relevance, clarity, originality, logic, etc.
7. The writing process: getting ideas, getting started, writing drafts, revising etc.
8. Purpose: the reason for writing, justification

2.9 Teaching Speaking

Speaking is a productive skill like writing. The aim of speaking is to convey message to other people by using speech. Although speaking was a neglected skill in the past, speaking is often treated as the key language skill since language is seen as a tool

for communication today. With the advance of technology and global interaction between individuals, speaking competence is perhaps the key indicator of competence in a foreign language.

There has been a trend shift in teaching speaking. It is not enough to make students speak just accurately but also fluently and intelligibly. According to Bailey and Savage (1994) speaking has always been viewed as the most demanding of the four language skills. Brown (1994) mentions some features which make speaking more demanding. The first of these is that fluent speech requires reduced forms. However, the language input in foreign language classes is often provided by textual materials. So full forms used in spoken language sound bookish. Oral communication is accomplished between two or more speakers. In foreign language classes, oral interaction between learners must be as realistic as it can be. However, this is often neglected. In addition, expecting a learner to become bilingual just with oral classroom work is over idealistic. Harmer (2001) states that, success in oral production is dependent upon the rapid processing skills that talking necessitates such as language processing, interacting with others and information processing. It is difficult for learners to develop these skills in a closed classroom setting. Classroom activities often focus on cognitive domain but neglect affective domain. The learners often do not like practicing speaking out of classroom. Classroom speaking activities often aim at making learners practice language forms which have just been learned. Learners are asked to talk about a topic which is more likely to contain a language form say, “can for ability”. The learners are often assigned to talk about things they can do and they can not do after they learn the form. Real oral interaction rarely takes place in that way. There is rarely just one form and situation in a real conversation. Characteristics of real communication in real-language situations has been outlined by Taylor as follows (1983; 277):

1. Participants must be able to comprehend meaning that is conveyed at a level beyond that of the sentence.
2. They have a purpose, which is to bridge some information gap.
3. They always have the choice of what to say and how to say it.
4. They have an objective in mind while they are talking.
5. They have to attend to many factors at the same time.

When the teacher's focus is on making students practice the language form which has just been taught, the conversation between the students will hardly make a real communication. Encouraging task based speaking practice will lead the students to engage in more realistic communication situations since the focus is not on form but achieving a task in task based speaking.

Error correction in speaking is another issue which has to be considered by teachers EFL. Some teachers tend to correct all errors the students make. However, since there should be a balance between the fluency and accuracy practices, some errors should be tolerated. Errors are natural outputs of L2 learning process. The question here is which errors should be tolerated? Bartram and Walton (2002) present the following questions as a guide to deciding whether to let an error go or not.

1. Does the mistake affect communication?
2. Are we concentrating on accuracy at the moment?
3. Is it really wrong? Or is it my imagination?
4. Why did the student make the mistake?
5. Is it the first time the student has spoken for a long time?
6. Could the student react badly to my correction?
7. Have they met this language point in the current lesson?
8. Is it something the students have already met?
9. Is this a mistake that several students are making?
10. Would the mistake irritate someone?

When all these are considered about teaching speaking, the following recommendations could be made.

- The speaking skills of students could be developed by focusing on different aspects of speaking like fluency, body language, pronunciation and grammatical accuracy.
- The teachers have to keep a balance of the aspects of speaking included in speaking lessons.
- Over emphasis on accuracy may end up with bookish conversations whereas over emphasis on fluency may end up with unduly free conversations.

- Leading students to engage in speaking activities which are directed to produce newly learned forms focus on accuracy and these activities can only develop accuracy which is just one aspect of speaking. The balance between PPP type activities and tasks should be established and maintained since tasks lead students to fluency and communication more than PPP activities.
- Another advantage of using tasks is that they provide learners better reasons to participate in speaking activities in classroom.
- Teachers should include affective domain objectives as well as cognitive domain objectives in their syllabuses. The learners should be encouraged to speak English outside the classroom.

2.10 Teaching Culture

Teaching culture has always been a component of foreign language teaching. However, in pre-communicative language teaching period, the aim of teaching culture was different. Culture studies in foreign language classes were confined to translating literary texts. The aim of L2 teaching has evolved from teaching structures, to teaching foreign language for communicative and interactional purposes. Here the main question is: do individuals really need to know about the culture of the foreign language they are learning? It is widely accepted that foreign language learners should also learn about the culture of the target language. Bada expresses the reason of the need for cultural literacy in ELT by saying that “most language learners who are not exposed to cultural elements of the society in question, seem to encounter significant hardship in communicating meaning to native speakers” (2000; 101). McDevitt points out that “there is no such a thing as human nature independent of culture; studying an L2, in a sense, is trying to figure out the nature of another people” (2004; 3). Similarly, Buttjes sees language and culture as interconnected notions and states five main reasons for teaching / learning culture (1990; 55):

1. Language acquisition does not follow a universal sequence, but differs across cultures;
2. The process of becoming a competent member of society is realized through exchanges of language in particular social situations;

3. Every society orchestrates the ways in which children participate in particular situations, and this, in turn, affects the form, the function and the content of children's utterances;
4. Caregivers' primary concern is not with grammatical input, but with the transmission of socio-cultural knowledge; and
5. The native learner, in addition to language, acquires also the paralinguistic patterns and the kinesics of his or her culture.

European Council's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEF), which aims to promote mutual recognition of language qualifications and facilitate educational and occupational mobility, also emphasizes the importance of teaching language and culture. The framework aims to educate individuals who can speak more than one foreign language and who know about foreign cultures. There are many different cultures in Europe and knowing more about foreign cultures could help promote democracy, human rights and the rule of law in member countries. This means that language teaching is important not only for the communication of the individuals but also for the integration of societies. According to Morrow (2004) an important part of what CEF does is essentially cultural in nature than narrowly political or economic.

No doubt that the need for integrating culture with foreign language teaching cannot be denied. But we encounter some important problems like what we mean by culture in foreign language teaching, which culture should be taught and what cultural elements should be included in syllabuses.

As for the first question we find many different definitions in the literature. According to Huebener (1965) culture is a notion with three dimensions; sociological, aesthetic and anthropological. Sociological dimension covers the cultural elements such as history, geography, economy and political background. Aesthetic dimension covers the cultural elements like literature, music and arts practices. And rituals, religion dressing, and eating habits of a specific culture are included in the third dimension that is anthropological dimension. Seelye sees culture as a broad concept embracing all aspects of human life and states that "it includes everything people learn to do. It is everything humans have learned. Culture shapes our thoughts and actions, and often

does so with a heavy hand” (1984). According to Abi Samra (2001) two of culture’s several meanings are of greater importance for foreign language teachers. Hearthstone or "little-c" culture: culture as everything in human life (also called culture BBV: Beliefs, Behavior, and Values) and Olympian or "big-C" culture: the best in human life restricted to the elitists (also called culture MLA: great Music, Literature, and Art of the country).

Especially when the aim is teaching foreign languages for communicative purposes, integrating cultural elements into the foreign language teaching syllabus becomes more important since real communication necessitates being aware of cultural differences. There are some challenges that have to be considered in teaching culture. One of them is which culture has to be integrated into foreign language teaching. English is spoken in many countries and the cultural elements differ in these countries. English is the official language of U.K., USA and Canada and there are different cultural practices in these countries. Moreover, English is spoken as an international language and there are many cultures interacting with English language. The focus of most recent course books is on conveying a mixture of cultural elements observed worldwide. Since learners often have to interact with English speaking people worldwide, it would be better to teach cultural elements from different countries.

As it can be seen from the above arguments, there seems to be no consensus on what culture is and which culture should be taught. The question related to the selection of cultural elements to be included in syllabuses, thus, remains to be an unsolved problem. Besides these theoretical problems, there are some other challenges involved in teaching culture. Some of the challenges mentioned by Abi Samra (2001) are:

- **Overcrowded Curriculum:** The study of culture needs time that many teachers feel they cannot spare in an already overcrowded curriculum; they contend themselves with the thought that students will be exposed to cultural material later, after they have mastered the basic grammar and vocabulary of the language.

- Fear of not knowing enough: Teachers are afraid to teach culture because they fear that they don't know enough about it, thinking that their role is only to impart facts.
- Dealing with Students' Negative Attitudes: When cultural phenomena differ from what they expect, students often react negatively, characterizing the target culture as "strange".
- Lack of Adequate Training: Teachers may not have been adequately trained in the teaching of culture and, therefore, do not have strategies and clear goals that help them to create a viable framework for organizing instruction around cultural themes.
- How to Measure Cross-Cultural Awareness and Change in Attitudes: It is very difficult for teachers to measure cross-cultural awareness and change in attitudes so that they can see whether the students have profited or not.

All these do not mean that no attempt has been made for integrating culture into classrooms. Cullen and Kazuyoshi (2000) suggest some practical ideas for integrating culture into foreign language classrooms:

- Personalization: Only by personalizing activities and content, can we hope to lead students to better cultural understanding. We can start off by talking about a distant country, but this will only result in stereotyping if we do not allow students to relate the same issues to their own lives. And as every language teacher knows, students love to talk about themselves.
- Activities, not just 'Discussion': I was reading a book on teaching culture recently and had to laugh at one activity. 'Step 1 - introduce the material. Step 2 - Lead a lively discussion.' This is probably possible with some high-level students in some parts of the world, but for most foreign-language students, instant lively discussion is an unlikely scenario. We have found that activities with simple instructions and a clear goal such as quizzes or surveys are very successful even with low-level learners. It is very easy to extend such activities into open-ended discussions if the opportunity arises. On the other hand, it is often impossible to transform open-ended 'discussion'

activities (usually with no clear goal) into activities which work effectively with low-level learners.

- **Suitable Level of Difficulty:** Know your students. Even though you may see yourself primarily as a teacher of culture, if you are working with EFL students, you must constantly remember that they probably will not understand everything that you say. It is not necessary that they understand every word and indeed a challenge is wonderful for learning, but consistently using material or a way of speaking that is too difficult is a sure way to make students lose their interest in a target-culture.
- **Make It Interesting:** Of course, the culture is interesting to you, so you presume that it will be interesting for your students. However, imagine sometimes that you are studying the culture of a foreign country, one that you may have no intention of visiting. Pick out the interesting aspects of a culture and present them in a way that will engage students. By using the variety of approaches described above to create cultural texture and by employing your own enthusiasm, you should also be able to create an exciting class for your students.
- **Group-work:** Students learn more in groups. They have more opportunities for using the target language, discussing the target culture, and gaining additional perspectives on their own culture
- **Don't Try to Cover Everything:** You can't. A culture is enormous. It consists of all the institutions, all the behaviors, in fact all the man-made aspects of a very large group of non-homogeneous people. All that we can do is provide some pathways to enter into learning more about the culture. After all, we never know everything about our own culture. We should not be disappointed that we cannot teach everything, but rather be happy that we are able to raise intercultural awareness at all.
- **Learn Your Students' Language and Culture and Understand Your Own Cultural Baggage:** One of the oddest things in the world must be a language teacher who only speaks one language or a culture teacher who only knows one culture. We are so immersed in our own culture that we can only understand it by trying to see it from the outside. Imposing our own values without making an attempt to understand our students' values is imperialistic

and arrogant. We must remember that intercultural understanding runs both ways.

2.11 Dealing with Errors

The word ‘error’ sounds like something which is a serious threat to learning and something that has to be avoided or terminated at all costs. However, the case is not that simple. Dealing with errors will always be of great importance since they are an integral part of learning. Errors are “no longer seen as unwanted forms, but as evidence of learner’s active contribution to SLA” (Ellis, 1985; 54). Especially after late 1960’s errors have been started to be considered as a natural part of learning. By Selinker, Corder and Nemser errors are seen as part of learners’ interlanguage. They show that learners are learning and that their internal mental processes are working on and experimenting with language (Ellis, 1985; 47). Interlanguage develops and progresses as learners learn more, and it is considered as an essential and unavoidable stage in language learning. Thus, “interlanguage and errors are necessary to language learning” (Spratt et.al, 2005; 44). Researchers distinguish errors from slips which are considered as a type of mistake resulting from tiredness, worry, or other temporary emotions or circumstances.

Errors which happen when learners try to say something that is beyond their current level of language processing occur for two main reasons. The first reason is influence from the learner’s first language which is called by Selinker as interference or transfer (Ellis, 1985; 48). The second reason why learners make errors is that interlanguage continues to develop. Learners who are unconsciously working out and organizing language make developmental errors.

Both developmental and interference errors can disappear without correction as the learner reaches mastery level. Spratt et.al. state that “correction may only help learners if they are ready for it, i.e. they are at the right stage in their individual learning process. But experts believe that learners can be helped to develop their inter language (2005; 45). For this reason errors are corrected in language classrooms. Perhaps the problem of dealing with errors in foreign language teaching is when, how and what errors to correct. The teachers’ role here seems to be ‘managing errors’. The teachers

have different attitudes toward errors. Some teachers strictly correct all errors no matter whether they are systematic or non-systematic. One reason may be the influence of their own language learning process. Especially teachers who learned their second language when behaviorist theory of learning was dominant and errors were treated as unwanted forms. Those teachers may want to go on in the same way they have been taught. The other reason may be the teachers' belief that the most accurate linguistic production makes the most successful learner. As it was stated before, that is not always the case. Still some other teachers ignore all errors believing that correcting errors hampers fluency. In other words, in practice two extremes of dealing with errors are observed: "correcting all" and "ignoring all".

In order to manage the errors, the teachers should consider the following issues:

- The focus of the activity: If the focus of the activity is on fluency, stopping the learners' production for correction may hamper communication. Especially in speaking activities, tolerating some errors may help students develop self confidence in maintaining the conversation. But if the focus is on accuracy, like in academic writing tasks or structure tasks, correcting all errors may sometimes be inevitable.
- Frequency of errors: If the error is a new one, this indicates that the learner is trying to proceed to an upper linguistic level. But if the same errors occur repeatedly, this indicates that the error got fossilized. Fossilized errors may be the result of lack of exposure to the L2 and/or of a learner's lack of motivation to improve his level of accuracy. In this case those errors have to be diagnosed.
- Ways of correction: Teacher correction, self correction and peer correction should all be made use of where possible. Learners can sometimes correct themselves. If they can't, peer correction may be considered. The teacher here can help learners by prompting learners. Self or peer correction would offer stability and help develop learning autonomy. However, if the error is a systematic one and can not be healed with self correction, the teacher should not hesitate to correct errors himself since he is also responsible for helping learners doing the best.
- The teacher must make use of different error correction techniques.

For more effective foreign language instruction, the teachers should go beyond hunting for errors but they should manage the errors made in a foreign language class. To summarize for effective management of errors, teachers should consider errors as indicators of active participation in learning process, and decide how serious an error is. A slip of tongue may not hamper learning, whereas a developmental error can. The teacher is not an authority who is responsible for maintaining 100% accuracy all the time. For fluency some errors could be tolerated. Different error correction techniques should be used for different tasks and different learners.

2.12 Individual Learner Differences

Within the trend shifts in ELT methodology, probably one of the most significant ones has been the dominance of teacher in learning process. When grammar translation method was popular, the EFL instruction was teacher centered. On the other hand, although teacher has still an important role in effective language teaching, learner centered instruction is a key approach for effective foreign language teaching. The shift from teacher centeredness to learner centeredness has imposed additional competences for teachers. Each individual is unique, and there are many variables affecting individual's learning. So effective teaching requires teachers' recognizing individual differences and managing teaching process accordingly.

Various factors such as learning styles, learning strategies, multiple intelligences maturity, past learning experience, affective factors, etc. may affect the learning process of an individual. Since these variables affect how individuals learn and how they respond to the teacher's teaching style, teachers should be aware of individual differences. With this regard each of these variables will be discussed.

2.12.1 Learning Styles

Learning styles are one of the factors determining how individuals learn a foreign language. The learning process of individuals is influenced by their style preferences. Felder and Henriques define it as "the ways in which an individual characteristically acquires, retains and retrieves information" (1995; 21). Each learner has his own learning style preferences. These preferences do not make some learners

better and some of them poorer ones. However in the case of mismatch between the learning style and the teaching style the success of the learner may negatively be affected: “Learning style is the biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics that make the same teaching method wonderful for some and terrible for others” (Cornett, 1983; 3).

“Learning styles are not dichotomous, but generally operate on a continuum or on multiple, intersecting continua” (Oxford, 2001; 360). That means that an auditory individual may also be visual. Furthermore, he may be equally visual and auditory. Berman (1998) states that in an average class of adults, twenty-nine percent will be predominantly visual learners, thirty four percent auditory and thirty seven percent kinesthetic. This rate can vary in some cases so what teachers have to do is to include activities which meet the demands of most of the learners. When classroom activities which are designed for only say, visual learners would not meet the needs of auditory and kinesthetic ones. Table 2 demonstrates common learning style preferences.

Table 2: Common Learning Style Preferences

STYLE CATEGORY	STYLE NAME	IN CLASS
Ways of taking in information through the physical senses	Visual	learns best through visual means
	Auditory	Prefers listening and speaking activities
	Hands-on	Benefits from doing projects, working with objects
Ways of relating to the self and others while learning	Extroverted	enjoys a wide variety of social, interactive learning tasks
	Introverted	likes to do more independent work, or enjoys working with a person s/he knows well
Ways of processing or using information	Intuitive	a future-oriented, able to see out major principles of the topic, likes to speculate about possibilities, enjoys abstract thinking, and avoids step by step instruction
	Concrete-sequential	a present-oriented, prefers one step at a time activities, want to know where s/he is going in her/his learning
	Closure-oriented	focuses carefully on all learning tasks, meets deadlines, plans ahead for assignments, wants explicit directions
	Open	enjoys discovery learning, prefers to

		relax and enjoy learning without concern for deadlines or rules
	Global	enjoys getting the main idea, guessing meanings, and communicates even if doesn't know all the concepts
	Analytic	focuses more on details, logical analysis and contrasts

(Yüksel, 2007)

The teachers can use inventories for assessing the learning styles of their learners and design activities which will meet the needs of most of the group.

2.12.2 Learning Strategies

Learning strategies is another variable affecting learning. Researches on second language learning strategies are mainly based on the studies of Chamot (1987), Cohen (1986), Oxford (1989), and O' Malley and Chamot (1990). In general terms, learning strategies are the cognitive steps which learners use to process second language input. These cognitive procedures include retrieving and storing new input (Yüksel et.al, 2005). According to Brown (1993), strategies are the specific attacks that learners use when they face a problem. Learning strategies was defined briefly by Cohen as "learning processes which are consciously selected by the learner" (1996; 4). There are different classifications of learning strategies. O'Malley and Chamot classify learning strategies under three headings (1993, 104):

1. Metacognitive strategies: Executive processes used in planning for learning, monitoring one's own comprehension and production, and evaluating how well one has achieved a learning objective.
2. Cognitive Strategies: Processes manipulating the material to be learned mentally (as in making images, inferring meaning or elaborating on prior knowledge) or physically (as in grouping items to be learned or taking notes)
3. Social – Affective Strategies: Processes in which the learner is either interacting with another person, in order to assist learning, as in cooperative learning and asking questions for clarification, or using effective control to assist in learning tasks

No strategy can be considered as good or bad. What makes a strategy effective or ineffective is the condition in which it is being used. A strategy is useful under three conditions; “(a) the strategy relates well to the L2 task at hand; (b) the strategy fits the particular student’s learning style preferences to one degree or another; and (c) the student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies” (Oxford, 1990; 8).

Each learner has his own strategy preferences. But mostly the learners employ them unconsciously. The teachers’ duty in terms of strategy preferences is to make students be aware of learning strategies and apply the right strategies for the right L2 tasks since there is enough evidence which indicates that effective strategy use makes language learning more effective.

2.12.3 Multiple Intelligences

Multiple Intelligences is another theory developed by Gardner in order to explain individual differences observed in classrooms. The theory suggests that human intelligence is multi-dimensional and human beings can develop several intelligences. Gardner sees traditional intelligence concept based on I.Q. testing, as mono-dimensional and instead, suggests a multi dimensional intelligence concept to account for a broader range of human potential. The list of multiple intelligences he proposes includes (1993; 107):

- Linguistic intelligence: Potential to work with words.
- Logical-mathematical intelligence: Potential to work with numbers and reasoning.
- Spatial intelligence: Potential to think in three dimensional way.
- Bodily-Kinesthetic intelligence: Potential to work with body to solve problems.
- Musical intelligence: Potential to think in music and recognize the patterns.
- Interpersonal intelligence: Potential to work and interact with people and society.
- Intrapersonal intelligence: Potential to recognize the abilities of the self.

- Naturalist intelligence: Potential to work with natural phenomena and formations in nature.

The learners are strong at these intelligences at different rates. Since foreign language teachers are usually working not with individuals but with groups of learners, the activity or tasks in foreign language classroom should be chosen in order to meet the demands of learners with different intelligences. Some possible activities which refer to different intelligences are given below:

- Linguistic intelligence: Word games, storytelling, crosswords, reading and writing games.
- Musical intelligence: Songs, playing instruments.
- Logical- mathematical intelligence: Logical problem solving, number activities, sequencing, classifying.
- Interpersonal intelligence: Pair and group work, interviews, surveys.
- Spatial intelligence: Diagrams, working with models, drawing, working with maps.
- Intrapersonal intelligence: Working with blogs, learning diaries.
- Bodily kinesthetic intelligence: Physical activities, sports, drama, dance.
- Naturalist intelligence: Nature projects, sorting, patterns.

In terms of maturity learners are grouped as children, teenagers and adults. It is one of the fundamental variables affecting the teaching process. Without considering the age of the learners, it is difficult to discuss the affectivity of foreign language teaching process. The teacher's language in the classroom, materials used, and topics chosen are just some of the dependents of the age factor. Spratt, et.al. outline the differences observed in different age groups (2005; 53).

Table 3: Differences observed in different age groups

Children	Teenagers	Adults
Need to move	Starting to keep still for longer periods but still need to move	Able to keep still for longer periods
Can concentrate for shorter periods	Concentration developing	Can concentrate for longer periods
Learn through experience	Beginning to learn in abstract ways, i.e. through thinking, as well as experiencing	Learn more in abstract ways
Are not very able to control and plan their own behavior	Beginning to control and plan their behavior	Usually able to control and plan their own behavior
Are not afraid of making mistakes or taking risks	May worry about what others think of them	Not so willing to make mistakes or take risks
Are not aware of themselves and / or their actions	Sometimes uncomfortably aware of themselves and / or their actions	Aware of themselves and / or their actions
Pay attention to meaning in language	Pay attention to meaning and increasingly to form	Pay attention to form and meaning in language
Have limited experience of life	Beginning to increase their experience of life.	Have experience of life

As it is seen in the table, foreign language teaching is deeply influenced by the learner age. The teachers should consider their group's age level for effective language teaching.

Learner centered education is widely popular today. The most important step for learner centered teaching is being aware of learner needs. Since each learner is unique, there are many variables that have to be controlled in order to meet the needs of most of the learners. The learner characteristics can be traced either by observing or by giving them questionnaires and inventories. It is not possible to meet the different needs of learners all the time. However, the teachers should provide a variety of activities and tasks which will refer to different learner needs. While designing those tasks and activities teachers should not disregard the age level of their learners. To enhance their learning capacity and help them become more autonomous learners, teachers can train learners about the individual differences. Teachers should always keep in mind that their own individual characteristics often affect their teaching styles. So the teachers

should not only be aware of learners' styles and strategies but also their own learning styles, strategies and intelligences.

2.13 Presentation Techniques

Presenting, structuring and planning lessons is of great importance for effective foreign language teaching. The term presentation technique used here refers to the way teachers convey new language items such as grammar, vocabulary and sounds. Although there are different ways of presenting language like task based language teaching (TBLT), PPP (Present, practice, produce), test – teach – test, grammar exercises, negotiation role plays etc., currently the most popular and at the same time the most debated ones seem to be the PPP and TBLT. TBLT and PPP both have advantages and disadvantages. Although there are opponents and proponents of both, this opposition does not seem to be a binary opposition.

The PPP technique has three stages which are presentation, practice and production respectively. The aim of presentation step is to introduce a new language item (grammar structure, vocabulary or sound). Generally these new items are determined by the author(s) of the course books or the contents of a standardized test in a specific linguistic level. The new item is presented by setting situations, dialogues, texts or context in which the target language item is used frequently. The item is generally presented deductively. In practice step, the learners are guided to practice some activities which aim at making them use the new language item. The activities in this step are controlled activities. The main aim in this step is to make students construct or utter the language item accurately. Activities used in this step are fill in the blanks with the correct word, putting word in to the correct order to make an accurate sentence, matching the word with antonyms or synonyms, making groups of words, learning grammar rules etc. In the last step which is the production, the aim is to make learners use the newly learned language item for communication. The activities in this step, though are less controlled, still focus on that particular language item. Some examples of activities are role plays, constructing dialogues, writing letters etc.

There are some problems of PPP technique. Although the production step is less controlled, especially in beginning levels, the learners tend to express everything they

want by using this new language item. For example, if the focus is on using past tense, they tend to express everything they want by using past tense forms thus there is the possibility that the students who seem to produce the new item well in that particular class hour may forget about re-producing it for the sake of using the new one a few weeks later. This is observed especially when English classes are fewer in the curriculum. In such cases it is seen that the learners have problems with retaining the language items they have previously learned. Another problem is that although the activities are less controlled, accuracy becomes superior to fluency and form becomes superior to meaning. Despite some clear disadvantages, PPP is commonly used as the main presentation technique. One main reason for that may be the fact that most course books are designed around PPP approach. Course book units are organized around grammatical forms. Even skill based activities are designed according to this principle. Another reason might be that during pre-service teacher training phase, the teacher trainees are mostly asked to design their lessons with the PPP approach. In addition to that, ease of determining clear goals in a PPP driven lesson, ease of managing large classes, lack of alternatives to replace PPP and conservatism can be considered as some other reasons. Since there seems no single alternative to PPP, what should be done is to integrate other presentation techniques into PPP dominated lessons. One of these presentation techniques worth considering is task based language teaching (TBLT).

The TBLT differs from PPP in the fact that a TBLT is not organized around a particular language item. The aim of the lesson is not practicing or producing a language item but completing a central task. The learners do not have to use specific language items for the sake of having used them, but rather they have to use appropriate language items to complete the task they are assigned. The tasks are similar to real life, so the language has to be authentic, real life language. In a TBLT framework the language needed is not pre-selected and given to the learners to practice it, but rather drawn from the learners with help from the facilitator, to meet the demands of the activities and task. TBLT relies heavily on learners actively experimenting with their store of knowledge and using skills of deduction and independent language analysis to exploit the situation fully. In this approach, motivation for communication becomes the primary driving force. According to Frost a task based lesson follows six steps (2004):

1. Pre-task: The teacher introduces the topic and gives the students clear instructions on what they will have to do at the task stage and might help the students to recall some language that may be useful for the task. The pre-task stage can also include playing a recording of people doing the task. This gives the students a clear model of what will be expected of them. The students can take notes and spend time preparing for the task.
2. Task: The students complete a task in pairs or groups using the language resources that they have as the teacher monitors and offers encouragement.
3. Planning: Students prepare a short oral or written report to tell the class what happened during their task. They then practice what they are going to say in their groups. Meanwhile the teacher is available for the students to ask for advice to clear up any language questions they may have.
4. Report: Students then report back to the class orally or read the written report. The teacher chooses the order of when students will present their reports and may give the students some quick feedback on the content. At this stage the teacher may also play a recording of others doing the same task for the students to compare.
5. Analysis: The teacher then highlights relevant parts from the text of the recording for the students to analyze. They may ask students to notice interesting features within this text. The teacher can also highlight the language that the students used during the report phase for analysis.
6. Practice: Finally, the teacher selects language areas to practice based upon the needs of the students and what emerged from the task and report phases. The students then do practice activities to increase their confidence and make a note of useful language.

The advantages of TBLT can be summarized as follows:

- The learners are not guided to over produce one language item. We rarely use specific language items in daily communication, instead we use the language items which are necessary to express ourselves.
- The learners have to use all language items which are necessary to communicate their messages. They can assess their communicative competence and plan their own learning.

- Tasks are more enjoyable and motivating since there is often an absolute product.
- Since the language items are not determined by the teacher or the course book, the teaching process is more learner centered. The learners have more freedom to reflect their individual needs.

We can not replace PPP with TBLT or vice versa. What teachers have to keep in mind is that there are both advantages and disadvantages of both presentation techniques. The influence of course books and teachers' past learning experience often lead teachers to adopt a PPP approach; however there are some drawbacks of PPP and hence implementing both PPP and TBLT in harmony with regard to needs of learners may help teaching foreign languages more effectively.

2.14 Assessment in Foreign Language Teaching

In all academic settings assessment is closely related to instruction and it is crucial. As Shabaan puts forward: "assessment is needed to help teachers and administrators make decisions about students' linguistic abilities, their placement in appropriate levels, and their achievement" (2001; 16). Assessment in FLT means diagnosing learners' competence or performance in a foreign language. Learners are assessed for several reasons. For example, at the beginning of a course learners may be given a test to find out what they know, or at the end of the course to find out how well learners have learned it or sometimes learners take a test to see how good they are at a language. Whatever the reason is, assessment has to be done effectively since we make a number of decisions to enhance performance or competence of learners after the assessment process. There are several types of tests used for assessment and the test types vary according to the purpose. In assessing foreign language performance two main categories can be mentioned: formal and informal assessment. The following test types are considered in the category of formal assessment:

1. Placement tests: Placement tests are used to make smaller and more homogenous groups out of a larger group. The learners may be grouped according to their linguistic levels or their performance in a language skill.

The tests are designed in compliance with the language teaching syllabus designed for specific groups.

2. Diagnostic tests: Diagnostic tests are used to determine the weaknesses or strengths of the students. Usually, the aim of these tests is to see the problematic productions of learners and to provide extra practice to enhance their performance.
3. Progress tests: These tests are administered in order to assess how far the learner has achieved the desired linguistic level. Progress tests differ in the aspect that, teachers decide whether they should go on with the next level, or spend more time with the current level.
4. Proficiency tests: Proficiency tests are used to compare learners' linguistic level with a pre-determined level which is accredited by many institutions. TOEFL, FCE etc. are examples of such tests. The results of these tests are used by many institutions like universities, commercial companies, and organizations etc.

Informal assessment differs from formal assessment in many aspects. For example, we can assess learners informally during normal classroom teaching, we do not have to assess all students synchronously or we do not have to give grades after informal assessment. As new ESL curricula have moved in the direction of developing communicative skills through the integration of language and content as well as language skill integration, alternative assessment techniques other than formal techniques started to be used. Another reason why informal assessment has become popular is that young learners are observed to be poor test takers. The followings are informal test types mentioned by Shabaan (2001, 18-20):

1. Nonverbal responses: Nonverbal responses require simple directions to carry out. As an assessment technique, this type of response may help lower the level of anxiety normally associated with evaluation as students see it as a natural extension of learning activities.
2. Oral interview: Learners may be asked to choose pictures to talk about, and the teacher's role is to guide the student by asking questions that require the use of related vocabulary.

3. **Role-play:** This informal assessment technique combines oral performance and physical activity. Young learners feel comfortable and motivated especially when the activity lends itself to cooperative learning and is seen as a fun way of learning.
4. **Written Narratives:** Assessment of the written communicative abilities of young learners could be achieved through purposeful, authentic tasks such as writing letters to friends, writing letters to favorite TV program characters and writing and responding to invitations.
5. **Presentations:** Presentations are important for assessment because they can provide a comprehensive record of students' abilities in both oral and written performance. Furthermore, presentations give the teachers some insights into students' interests, work habits, and organizational abilities.
6. **Student-Teacher Conferences:** Student-teacher conferences, including structured interviews, can be effective informal way of assessing a student's progress in language learning.
7. **Self-assessment:** Young learners may also participate in self-assessment. Although self assessment may seem inappropriate at first, it can yield accurate judgments of students' linguistic abilities, weaknesses and strengths, and improvement.
8. **Dialogue Journals:** These journals are interactive in nature; they can take the form of an ongoing written dialogue between teacher and student. Dialogue journals have proven effective and enjoyable for students regardless of their level of proficiency.
9. **Peer and Group Assessment:** Recent trends in EFL/ESL teaching methodology have stressed the need to develop students' ability to work cooperatively with others in groups. For assessment, for example, students can write evaluative, encouraging notes for each member of their team emphasizing their positive contribution to team work.
10. **Student Portfolios:** The purpose of a portfolio in the context of language teaching is to demonstrate the extent of a student's communicative competence in the target language through samples of oral and written work.

The teacher should make use of the advantages of both assessment types. Before the assessment, the teacher should decide the aim and select the assessment task and techniques and test type accordingly. In this process, the first question to be answered is whether they are assessing accuracy or fluency. In order to assess accuracy formal assessment test types and to assess fluency informal assessment types could be preferred. Assessment tasks like multiple choice tests could fit well to an accuracy assessment whereas a role-play task could fit well to fluency assessment. In the case of formal assessment the following points should be kept in mind:

- The teachers should include a variety of assessment techniques and assessment tasks in order to get a clear and reliable general picture of all learners.
- Formal assessment is a problem with young learners. Young learners can not always complete difficult assessment tasks like multiple choice, paragraph writing etc.
- Formal assessment should not focus on just cognitive domain but also cover other domains.
- Teachers sometimes tend to choose assessment tasks which are easy to mark. The prominence should be given to getting the most comprehensible, valid and reliable outcome in an assessment activity.
- Some testing tasks the teachers frequently use are; gap-fill, correcting mistakes, matching, translating, composition writing, dictating, ordering, role-plays and conversation and interviews.
- The learners are usually more interested in the results of formal assessment. So the teachers tend to focus more on formal assessment. However, informal assessment supplies valuable data for feedback. There should be a balance between informal and formal assessment.

For an effective informal assessment the teacher should consider the following points:

- Young learners' learning is based on experiencing and communicating, so informal assessment fits the needs of young learners better than formal assessment.

- The teacher should consider the age factor. Informal assessment is especially useful for young learners since it is difficult to administer formal assessment techniques to young learners. They can not complete some tasks like multiple choice, paragraph writing and error correction.
- The size of the class should be taken into account since in large classes it is difficult to assess all learners informally. Because of time constraints the assessment tasks should be chosen accordingly.
- It is important for learners to know that they are being assessed.
- Informal assessment could help individuals become more autonomous learners. The teachers should provide self or peer assessment opportunities where possible.
- Formal assessment usually covers cognitive and psycho-motor domains. But via informal assessment, teachers can also assess affective domain i.e. whether learners like using the foreign language outside the class, whether they are motivated or not.

2.15 Lesson Planning

Foreign language teaching comprises teaching of many behaviors and skills. As Demirel puts it, learning of a second language is a cumulative process in which “the students gradually acquire a foreign language system of communication by developing cognitive behaviors and psycho motor skills” (2004, 17). These behaviors and skills can not be taught without a well organized plan. With the term planning three other terms; curriculum, syllabus and lesson plan, are closely related. In literature all the specialists seem to agree on the necessity of a well organized planning, yet several conflicting views are observed in the usage of these terms. Although some tend to use the first two of these terms interchangeably, for some there is a distinction in between. For the specialists who make a distinction, the term “curriculum” is wider, “syllabus”, on the other hand, is narrower. The following quotes can provide an overview of varying opinions on the issue:

... I would like to draw attention to a distinction ... between curriculum or syllabus, that is its content, structure, parts and organization, and ... what in curriculum theory is often called curriculum processes, that is curriculum development, implementation, dissemination and evaluation (Stern, 1984, 10-11)

... Curriculum is a very general concept which involves consideration of the whole complex of philosophical, social and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an educational program. Syllabus, on the other hand refers to that subpart of curriculum which is concerned with a specification of what units will be taught (Allen, 1984, 61)

Since language is highly complex and can not be taught all at the same time, successful teaching requires that there should be a selection of material depending on the prior definition of objectives, proficiency level, and duration of course. This selection takes place at the syllabus planning stage (op. cit.: 65)

Foreign language learning is a cumulative process which combines cognitive behaviors and new psycho-motor skills. ... in order to develop these behaviors and skills firstly, we should develop a well organized foreign language curriculum. The curriculum development process is sequenced as, a) determination of needs b) formulation of objectives, c) selection of content, d) implementation of the programme and e) evaluation of results (Demirel, 2004, 17-18)

As you can see some language specialists distinguish curriculum from syllabus and others see them as synonymous. As some of the areas of concern in curriculum development may be out of the hands of course developers, a distinction between the two is necessary. Hence we, following the first group of specialists, understand curriculum in the broadest sense as the philosophy, purposes, design, and implementation of the whole program, and define syllabus narrowly as the specification and ordering of course content.

There are various curriculum development models. The most recent model used in our country is Demirel's model whose steps are determination of needs, formulation of objectives, selection of content, implementation of the programme, and evaluation of results. Determination of needs before designing a curriculum is crucial since, there are many learners with different needs and individual characteristics. For example, the educational background of learners, the aim of individuals' learning a foreign language would vary the behavior and skills included in a curriculum. Moreover, available resources (time, teaching materials, group size e.t.c) should also be considered before

starting teaching process. So we can conclude that needs analysis phase is the most important step of a curriculum development process.

After the needs analysis, we have to formulate the objectives. The term objective is often used interchangeably with the terms goals, aims and purposes. According to Demirel goals are “statements of endpoints or outcomes of education; in other words, they are very general and broad. Aims are more specific and the long-term goals” (2004; 21).

Bloom (1956) classifies educational objectives under three domains which are cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. Under the three domains there are subdivisions, starting from the simplest behavior to the most complex.

Table 4: Classification of educational objectives

	COGNITIVE DOMAIN	AFFECTIVE DOMAIN	PSYCHOMOTOR DOMAIN
1	Knowledge	Receiving	Stimulating
2	Comprehension	Responding	Performing
3	Application	Valuing	Developing
4	Analysis	Organization	Adjusting
5	Synthesis	Characterization	Creating
6	Evaluation		

Learning is often defined as behavioral modification in a positive way. In fact, what we teach is exactly the behavior, and behavior is categorized into subdivisions under those three domains. So, the objectives are stated in terms of behaviors. It is important to write behaviors appropriately.

The next step following formulating objectives is the selection of content. After the objectives are stated in behavioral terms, content which will be used for attaining learning objectives is chosen. The table of specifications which presents the content and behavioral objectives is constructed in order to see the distribution of behavioral objectives. The content includes vocabulary items, cultural elements, skills development and language items. The course books and other supplementary materials are usually

used to select appropriate content. Today, with the advance of educational technology it is easier to support content with valuable teaching materials. After the construction of content, the teaching/learning process is organized. Following the implementation of the program the curriculum is evaluated. In evaluation step, both the learners and the curriculum are assessed.

Just as there are different curriculum development models, there are different syllabus design approaches. A detailed account of various syllabus components which need to be considered in developing language courses have been listed by van Ek as follows (1975, 8-9)

1. The situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with;
2. The language teaching in which the learner will engage;
3. The language functions which the learner will fulfill;
4. What the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic;
5. The general notions which the learner will be able to handle;
6. The language forms which the learner will be able to use;
7. The degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform.

In practice teacher's role, to a certain extent, is similar to that of a syllabus designer since the teacher is the person who teaches the content, modifies the plan, and organizes classroom learning activities toward chosen goals. The teacher, in his lesson plan, concentrates on working from objectives through classroom learning experiences to testing procedures. For successful teaching "careful planning is crucial ..., and it is doubtful that anyone can be a good teacher unless she is aware of her objectives and plans the classroom activities accordingly" (Chastain, 1988, 335). Without planning teaching, learning and testing in advance, we can not make sure what behaviors learners will develop at the end of foreign language teaching process. Lesson plans provide an organized framework for maintaining a planned course content and a manageable progression of activities. The daily plan reflects this sequential orientation and fits into the overall progression of the sequence (Chastain, 1988, 342).

CHAPTER 3

THE RESEARCH

3.1 Research Method

The aim of this study is to describe the perceptions of EFL teachers on teaching competences. Cross sectional survey design was preferred since the data were gathered at one point in time. The collected data were analyzed to find out the degree of overlap between the foreign language teaching competences and the perceptions of the teachers. The teachers' responses to the items of the tool were also compared with respect to some independent variables like educational background; the type of school the teacher is employed, teaching experience, gender and type of contract in order to find out the impact of these variables on teaching competences.

3.2 Population and Sampling

The study cohorts a total of 151 EFL teachers (129 life time tenure, 22 contracted) working at primary and secondary schools located in Edirne during the academic year 2005-2006. The sample is also the population since all English teachers in Edirne were sent the data collection tool. The distribution of teachers in Edirne was shown in table 5:

Table 5: The distribution of teachers in Edirne

District	Number of English Teachers
Enez	5
Havsa	6
İpsala	8
Keşan	22
Lalapaşa	2
Meriç	6
Central Edirne	62
Süloğlu	1
Uzunköprü	17
TOTAL	129

3.3 Data and Data Collection

The data were collected from 123 teachers working in Edirne. The data include demographic information about teachers and teachers' perceptions of foreign language teaching competences. The demographic information collected includes, gender, type of contract, educational background, type of school and years of experience. These variables are categorical variables. The aim of collecting demographic information was to test the effect of independent variables on the dependent variables (perceptions on teaching competences). The independent variables were chosen after a review of literature. The independent variables were those, which have been assumed to effect teachers' perceptions on teaching competences.

The dependent variables were also determined after a review of literature. While reviewing the literature, the competences assessed by Cambridge ESOL's TKT (Teaching knowledge test) were studied. Most of the competences were adapted from TKT syllabus, (Spratt, et.al., 2005) but some other competences which have been proposed by other specialists were included in the data collection tool as well. Questionnaire technique was chosen since the aim was to investigate the teachers' perceptions on the current set of competences. The Foreign Language Teaching Competences questionnaire was designed by the researcher. The questionnaire is a five scale Likert type questionnaire including 68 items. These 68 items are grouped under three dimensions: teaching language and language skills, background to language learning and teaching and planning and managing lessons respectively. Each dimension covers teaching competences related to the particular dimension.

Before the final administration of the questionnaire, pilot questionnaire was administered to 62 teachers in Tekirdağ and Çorlu. The teachers in Edirne were not administered the pilot questionnaire. The teachers in Tekirdağ and Çorlu were assumed to have similar characteristics. The questionnaire items were also discussed with teachers to ensure that all questions were understood clearly and without ambiguity. The final version of the questionnaire consists of 68 questions. For the content validity of the questionnaire, experts were consulted. For the reliability of the questionnaire, internal consistency approach was used and *Cronbach alpha* coefficient was calculated using SPSS 11.0 software. The *Cronbach alpha* coefficient was found as ,89 which indicates

a high level of reliability. After the analysis of results of the pilot questionnaire, the final version of the questionnaire was administered to 150 teachers, and 123 of the questionnaires were returned which indicates that 82% of the questionnaires were returned.

3.4 Data Analysis

For the statistical analysis of the data collected, SPSS 11.0 software (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used. The following statistical techniques were used:

Independent samples T test: This test was used to test the difference between the perceptions of teachers with regard to a) gender and b) type of contract (life time tenure and contracted)

One Way Analysis of Variance: ANOVA test was used to test the difference between the perceptions of teachers with regard to the variables a) educational background, b) type of school the teacher is currently teaching, and c) experience in teaching profession. Levene's test of equality of variances was used to check the equality of variances. When the variances were equal, Tukey's HSD test and when the variances were not equal Tamhane's T2 test was used.

The mean and frequencies of teachers' responses to questionnaire items were calculated.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Results

This chapter includes the findings and the discussion of findings. Data collected by questionnaire were statistically analyzed, and the findings were given in relation to the research questions.

4.2 Research Question 1

The first research question is “Are there any differences between the teachers’ perceptions of teaching qualities with respect to some individual differences such as educational background, type of school the teacher is currently teaching, experience in teaching profession, gender and type of contract”. The results are given in the order of independent variables.

Independent variable 1: Educational background

The teachers were asked to state their educational background in the questionnaire. The statistics of educational background of the teachers in Edirne were given in the following given in table 6.

Table 6: The distribution of teachers with respect to their educational background

Type of faculty	f	%
Faculty of education ELT department	94	76,4
Open education faculty ELT department	3	2,4
Faculty of science and letters, English language and literature, American culture	19	15,4
Disciplines other than teaching or language	4	3,3
Faculty of education – disciplines other than foreign language teaching	3	2,4
TOTAL	123	100

To analyze the relation between perceptions of teachers on teaching competences and their educational background ANOVA (Analysis of variance) was used. The statistical analysis indicated a significant difference between the teachers' perceptions in only one questionnaire item (item number 15). There was not any significant difference between the educational background and other questionnaire items. The results of the test were given in table 7.

Table 7: The difference between teachers' educational background and teachers' perceptions

Dependent Variable		Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	<i>p</i>
15. I use easy comprehension activities in order to make difficult reading texts easier to understand.	Between Groups	6,574	4	1,643	2,612	,039
	Within groups	74,256	118	,629		
	Total	80,829	122			

Since in item 15 there was a significant difference at $p < .05$ level, multiple comparison tests (Tukey HSD test) were conducted to see which groups have different perceptions (table 8).

Table 8: Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable		Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	<i>p</i>
15. I use easy comprehension activities in order to make difficult reading texts easier to understand.	Between Groups	6,574	4	1,643	2,612	,039
	Within groups	74,256	118	,629		
	Total	80,829	122			

The teachers who were the graduates of faculty of education ELT department and faculty of science and letters had different perceptions on questionnaire item 15. When compared to graduates of science and letters, graduates of faculty of education ELT department use easy comprehension activities in order to make difficult reading texts easier to understand more.

Independent variable 2: The type of school

The teachers were asked to state the type of school they are currently working in the questionnaire. The distribution of teachers to different types of schools was given below.

Table 9: Distribution of teachers to different types of schools

Type of School	f	%
State primary school	42	34,1
Anatolian high school	36	29,3
Anatolian vocational school	13	10,6
Vocational school	5	4,1
High school	14	11,4
Private school	13	10,6
TOTAL	123	100

To analyze the difference between perceptions of teachers on teaching competences and the type of school they are currently working, ANOVA (Analysis of variance) test was used. The analysis indicated a significant difference between the teachers' perceptions in nine questionnaire items (items 12, 13, 22, 32, 47, 54, 58, 60, 61). No significant difference was found between the type of school and other questionnaire items. The results of the test were given in table 10.

Table 10: The difference between the type of school and teachers' perceptions

Dependent Variable		Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	<i>p</i>
2. I teach grammatical rules in all groups of students (young, teenager, adult learners) since it makes learning easier.	Between Groups	7,473	2	3,736	3,137	,047
	Within groups	142,934	120	1,191		
	Total	150,407	122			
13. I regularly assign extensive reading.	Between Groups	8,787	2	4,393	6,725	,002
	Within groups	78,400	120	,653		
	Total	87,187	122			
22. I regularly focus on listening subskills.	Between Groups	7,541	2	3,771	3,368	,038
	Within groups	134,329	120	1,119		
	Total	141,870	122			

30. Errors indicate that my students have problem with learning the presented language	Between Groups	7,529	2	3,765	3,404	,036
	Within groups	132,731	120	1,106		
	Total	140,260	122			
38. I know my learning styles	Between Groups	13,257	2	6,628	4,356	,015
	Within groups	182,597	120	1,522		
	Total	195,854	122			
43. For communication practice activities I mostly use choral drilling of pronunciation, repeating new words, learning conversations by heart	Between Groups	9,927	2	4,964	4,130	,018
	Within groups	144,236	120	1,202		
	Total	154,163	122			
47. I regularly make use of portfolio assessment	Between Groups	11,218	2	5,609	5,362	,006
	Within groups	125,530	120	1,046		
	Total	136,748	122			
54. My course book always tells me what my aims should be.	Between Groups	18,538	2	9,269	7,220	,001
	Within groups	154,064	120	1,284		
	Total	172,602	122			
60. I use Turkish for setting up activities and checking understanding.	Between Groups	133,626	122			
	Within groups	15,951	2	7,975	8,040	,001
	Total	119,041	120	,992		
61. I have to give instructions in Turkish, because my learners get concentrated better.	Between Groups	134,992	122			
	Within groups	14,450	2	7,225	7,098	,001
	Total	122,152	120	1,018		

Since a significant difference was found at $p < .05$ level, in the given items, multiple comparison tests (Tukey HSD and Tamhane tests) were conducted to see which groups have different perceptions.

Table 11: Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable		Mean Difference (A-B)	Std. error	<i>p</i>
	(A)	(B)			
2. I teach grammatical rules in all groups of students (young, teenager, adult learners) since it makes learning easier.	Primary School	Private School	,7802	,2451	,009**
13. I regularly assign extensive reading.	High school	Primary School	,5602	,1586	,002*
22. I regularly focus on listening subskills.	Private school	Primary School	,7949	,3358	,051*
30. Errors indicate that my students have problem with learning the presented language.	High School	Private school	,8224	,3183	,029*
38. I know my learning styles.	Private school	Primary School	1,1062	,3915	,015**
43. For communication practice activities I mostly use choral drilling of pronunciation, repeating new words, learning conversations by heart.	Primary School	Private school	,9689	,3591	,044*
47. I regularly make use of portfolio assessment	Private school	Primary School	1,0495	,3246	,004*
	Private school	High school	,8982	,3096	,012*
54. My course book always tells me what my aims should be	High school	Primary School	,8060	,2344	,003*
	Private school	Primary School	,8773	,3089	,024*
60. I use Turkish for setting up activities and checking understanding.	Primary School	High school	,5175	,1838	,018*
	Primary School	Private school	1,1996	,3948	,024*
61. I have to give instructions in Turkish, because my learners get concentrated better.	Primary School	Private school	1,1923	,3746	,017*
	High school	Private school	1,0158	,3680	,043*

* Tukey, ** Tamhane

As a result of the statistical analysis in relation to independent variable 2, we found that;

- Primary school teachers teach grammatical rules in all groups of students more frequently than private school teachers,

- High school teachers assign extensive reading more frequently than private school teachers,
- Private school teachers focus on listening subskills more frequently than primary school teachers,
- High school teachers have stronger beliefs on the questionnaire item “errors indicate that students have problems with learning the presented language” than private school teachers,
- Private school teachers have stronger beliefs on the fact that they know their learning styles than primary school teachers,
- Primary school teachers use choral drilling of pronunciation, repeating new words, learning conversations by heart for communication practice activities more than private school teachers,
- Private school teachers make use of portfolio assessment more than primary and high school teachers,
- High school and private school teachers have stronger beliefs on the fact that course book always tells them what their aims should be than primary school teachers,
- Primary school teachers use Turkish for setting up activities and checking understanding more frequently than high school and private school teachers,
- Primary and high school teachers have stronger beliefs on the fact that they have to give instructions in Turkish than private school teachers,

Independent variable 3: Years of Experience

The teachers were asked to state their years of experience. The distribution of teachers according to their years of experience was given in table 12.

Table 12: The distribution of teachers by years of experience

Years of Experience	F	%
0-5 years	59	48,0
6- 10 years	40	32,5
11-15 years	10	8,1
16-20 years	5	4,1
21 and more years	9	7,3
TOTAL	123	100,0

Teachers' years of experience was asked in five categories in order to see the distribution of the teachers in Edirne. But the comparison was made between two groups: 0-10 years of experience and 11 and more years of experience. The reason of this two main grouping was the curriculum renewal of the faculties of education. The curriculums of faculties of education were modified in 1997, and the teachers who had up to ten years of experience have been trained with the new curriculums. The teachers who had more than 11 years of experience were trained with the former curriculums and we did not know whether they had in-service training to refresh their teaching knowledge on contemporary teaching approaches or not.

To check the difference between perceptions on teaching competences and years of experience, Independent Samples T test was used. The analysis indicated a significant difference between the teachers' perceptions in ten questionnaire items (items 11, 15, 24, 37, 29, 48, 49, 50, 52, 54). When the means of the groups were compared, the means of group 2 were greater than those of group 1 in all these 10 items. With regards to other questionnaire items no significant difference was found between the groups. The results were given in table 13.

Table 13: The difference between years of experience and teachers' perceptions

	Group 1	Group 2	<i>p</i>
11. Teaching functions to beginners is not useful since functions need some upper level grammatical structures.	2,93	3,83	,001
15. I use easy comprehension activities in order to make difficult reading texts easier to understand.	3,79	4,33	,009
24. In speaking lessons, my focus is on guiding my students to utter the recently taught language items in order to practice them.	3,56	4,08	,014
37. I vary my teaching techniques in order to meet the needs of all learners all the time.	3,78	4,2	,038
39. I know the learning strategies I mostly apply.	3,32	3,83	,047
48. My students are interested in results of formal assessment. It is more useful than informal assessment.	3,45	4,00	,006
49. Since young learners' learning is based on experiencing and communicating, I use formal assessment for young learners.	3,27	3,75	,020
50. I don't let my students know that I'm assessing them informally because they may behave unnatural and try to over perform activities.	3,33	3,95	,020
52. I usually design my tests in order to assess communication	3,13	3,91	,000
54. My course book always tells me what my aims should be.	3,15	3,79	,011

Group 1: 0-10 years of experience

Group 2: 11 and more years of experience

As a result of the statistical analysis in relation to independent variable 3, we found that group 2 had stronger perceptions on the fact that teaching functions to beginners is not useful. They used easy comprehension activities to make difficult reading texts easier to understand, focused on guiding learners to utter the recently taught language items in speaking lessons, varied their teaching techniques to meet the needs of all learners all the time more frequently than group 1. Also they were more conscious of learning strategies. For the assessment of their students they gave more importance to formal assessment and they used formal assessment for young learner more than group 1. The members of the same group stated that they frequently designed tests to assess communication. Additionally, they had stronger beliefs on that course books always told them what their aims should be.

Independent variable 4: Gender

The teachers were asked to state their gender in the questionnaire. The distribution of teachers according to their gender was given in table 14.

Table 14: The distribution of teachers by gender

Gender	f	%
Male	29	23,6
Female	94	76,4
TOTAL	123	100,0

To find out the difference between male and female teachers' perceptions on teaching competences independent samples t test was conducted.

Table 15: The difference between gender and teachers' perceptions

	\bar{X} M	\bar{X} F	<i>p</i>
3. My students can not communicate without knowing grammatical rules	2,72	3,17	,048
19. I mostly integrate writing activities to other skills in order to teach writing subskills.	3,52	3,94	0,01
23. I use authentic listening texts. Simplified texts are not useful for students	3,03	2,48	0,035
25. For fluency, I correct the errors the students make in speaking lessons.	2,93	3,52	0,009
30. Errors indicate that my students have problem with learning the presented language.	2,93	3,49	0,015
32. Every error should be corrected immediately.	2,00	2,94	0,000
58. Lesson plans don't help me teach, because I always try to respond to learners' needs during the lesson.	2,65	3,17	0,026
66. While using technological materials, I need to get help since it's difficult to operate them.	2,07	2,55	0,036

In relation to independent variable 4, when the responses of the male and female teachers were compared, we found that female teachers more frequently believed that students cannot communicate without knowing grammatical rules and tended to integrate writing activities to other skills in order to teach writing subskills. We also found that male teachers tended to use authentic texts more than female teachers.

Female teachers tended to correct the errors in speaking classes for fluency more than male teachers and they believed that every error should be corrected immediately. Female teachers also had stronger beliefs on that lesson plans do not help in teaching. Lastly, female teachers need to get help while using technological materials more frequently than male teachers.

Independent Variable 5: The Type of Contract

The teachers were asked to state their type of contract in the questionnaire. The distribution of teachers according to their types of contract was given in table 16.

Table 16: The difference between the type of contract and teachers' perceptions

Type of Contract	f	%
Lifetime tenure	104	84,6
Contracted	19	15,4
TOTAL	123	100,0

In order to find out the difference between the perceptions of the teachers who are contracted and who have lifetime tenure, independent samples t test was conducted.

Table 17: The difference between type of contract and teachers' perceptions

	\bar{X}_C	\bar{X}_{LT}	<i>p</i>
16. I ask my students to keep a writing portfolio including their outlines, drafts and edited versions	3,47	2,85	,033
20. I regularly focus on writing subskills.	3,42	2,85	,026
35. In order to find out my students' learning styles I ask them questions, give them questionnaires e.t.c	3,58	2,66	,004
39. I know the learning strategies I mostly apply.	4,00	3,32	,007
44. I prefer assessment activities which are easy to mark.	3,63	3,20	,025
47. I regularly make use of portfolio assessment.	3,26	2,76	,044
50. I don't let my students know that I'm assessing them informally because they may behave unnatural and try to over perform activities.	3,89	3,37	,008
67. When necessary, I use language laboratory facilities	3,21	2,69	,040

As a result of the statistical analysis we found that contracted teachers asked their learners to keep a writing portfolio and focused on writing subskills more frequently than lifetime tenure teachers. A greater percentage of contracted teachers stated that they diagnosed their learners learning styles and they knew their learning styles. Contracted teachers also had stronger beliefs on using assessment activities easier to mark, and they used language laboratory facilities more frequently than lifetime tenure teachers.

4.3 Research Question 2

The second research question is: “What are the teachers’ perceptions of foreign language teaching competences on the dimension of teaching language and language skills?” To answer this research question, the means and frequencies of the teachers’ responses to questionnaire items related to the teaching language and language skills dimension were statistically analyzed.

Table 18: Frequencies for the dimension of teaching language and language skills

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Usually		Always		\bar{X}
Item	F	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	
1	0	0	5	4,1	36	29,3	59	48	23	18,7	3,81
2	4	3,3	23	18,7	22	17,9	49	39,8	25	20,3	3,55
3	10	8,1	23	18,7	51	41,5	27	22,0	12	9,8	3,06
4	19	15,4	25	20,3	34	27,6	32	26	13	10,6	2,95
5	6	4,9	16	13	32	26	46	37,4	23	18,7	3,52
6	23	18,7	41	33,3	34	27,6	23	18,7	2	1,6	2,51
7	4	3,3	18	14,6	43	35	45	36,6	13	10,6	3,36
8	0	0	8	6,5	16	13	68	55,3	31	25,2	3,99
9	29	23,6	23	18,7	42	34,1	22	17,9	7	5,7	2,63
10	27	22,0	17	13,8	47	38,2	18	14,6	14	11,4	2,79
11	9	7,3	24	19,5	49	39,8	26	21,1	15	12,2	3,11
12	10	8,1	14	11,4	37	30,1	44	35,8	18	14,6	3,37
13	2	1,6	19	15,4	55	44,7	40	32,5	7	5,7	3,25
14	8	6,5	29	23,6	36	29,3	41	33,3	9	7,3	3,11
15	1	,8	3	2,4	32	26	58	47,2	29	23,6	3,9
16	20	16,3	24	19,5	35	28,5	30	24,4	14	11,4	2,95
17	5	4,1	10	8,1	21	17,1	41	33,3	46	37,4	3,91
18	16	13	23	18,7	30	24,4	36	29,3	18	14,6	3,13
19	1	,8	8	6,5	26	21,1	63	51,2	25	20,3	3,83
20	11	8,9	33	26,8	40	32,5	31	25,2	8	6,5	2,93

21	12	9,8	26	21,1	48	39	24	19,5	13	10,6	3
22	11	8,9	29	23,6	47	38,2	25	20,3	11	8,9	2,96
23	22	17,9	35	28,5	44	35,8	13	10,6	9	7,3	2,6
24	2	1,6	10	8,1	35	28,5	56	45,5	20	16,3	3,66
25	10	8,1	21	17,1	23	18,7	50	40,7	19	15,4	3,38
29	6	4,9	26	21,1	44	35,8	35	28,5	12	9,8	3,17

The findings were given in relation to teaching competences included in the questionnaire.

Teaching grammar: In relation to the questionnaire items describing perceptions on teaching grammar we found that a high percentage of teachers thought that they kept up to date with what parts of grammar are changing (66.7 %), taught grammar rules in all groups of students (60.1 %), believed that learners can not communicate without knowing grammatical rules (31.8 %) and believed that learning grammar rules is more important for their students success (38.3 %). On the other hand there was a relatively equal distribution of teachers who thought that students cannot communicate without learning grammar. There was a slight difference between the percentages of teachers who thought teaching functions to beginners is not useful (33.3%) and who thought it is useful (26.8%).

Teaching Vocabulary: There was a high frequency of teachers who thought that teaching denotations to beginners is enough (56.1%) and who did not teach a wide variety of accents (56%). The percentages of teachers who expected (36.6%) and did not expect their learners to learn immediately (35.7%) were relatively equal.

Teaching Pronunciation: The percentage of teachers who had a regular focus on different aspects of pronunciation (47.2%), who expected their students' pronunciation to be widely understandable (80.5%) and who did not expect their students to pronounce like a native speaker (42.3%) was high. The number of teachers who thought and did not think it is useful to teach phonemic symbols was relatively equal.

Teaching Reading: In the competence of teaching reading the percentage of teachers' who regularly assign extensive reading (38,2%), and who use easy comprehension activities to make difficult reading texts easier to understand (70,8%) is high. The distribution of teachers who focus on reading sub skills was relatively equal.

Teaching Writing: In this competence the perceptions with high percentages are underlining the mistakes and writing the correct form (70.7%), using error codes for giving feedback (43.9%) and integrating writing activities to other language skills in order to teach sub skills of writing (71.5%). There was an equal distribution of percentages on asking students to keep writing portfolios and focusing on writing sub skills in writing lessons.

Teaching Listening: The percentage of teachers who used authentic texts was high (46.4%) and there was a relatively equal distribution of teachers who regularly used different sources of spoken language and who regularly focused on listening sub skills.

Teaching Speaking: The number of teachers whose focus is on guiding students to practice recently taught language items (61.8%), and correcting the errors for fluency in speaking lessons (56.1%) was high.

4.4 Research Question 3

The third research question was: “What are the teachers’ perceptions of foreign language teaching competences on the dimension of background to language learning and teaching?” To answer this research question, the means and frequencies of the teachers’ responses to questionnaire items related to the background to language learning and teaching sub division were calculated.

Table 19: Frequencies for the dimension of background to language learning and teaching

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Usually		Always		\bar{X}
Item	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
25	10	8,1	21	17,1	23	18,7	50	40,7	19	15,4	3,38
26	0	0	15	12,2	30	24,4	54	43,9	24	19,5	3,70
27	13	10,6	38	30,9	41	33,3	20	16,3	11	8,9	2,82
28	22	17,9	24	19,5	36	29,3	36	29,3	5	4,1	2,82
30	10	8,1	12	9,8	39	31,7	48	39	14	11,4	3,35
31	9	7,3	24	19,5	50	40,7	26	21,1	14	11,4	3,09
32	28	22,8	27	22	30	24,4	27	22	11	8,9	2,72
33	14	11,4	16	13	48	39	36	29,3	9	7,3	3,08
34	17	13,8	52	42,3	40	32,5	10	8,1	4	3,3	2,44

35	23	18,7	26	21,1	36	29,3	28	22,8	10	8,1	2,80
36	15	12,2	35	28,5	41	33,3	29	23,6	3	2,4	2,75
37	0	0	14	11,4	22	17,9	53	43,1	34	27,6	3,86
38	14	11,4	16	13	23	18,7	45	36,6	25	20,3	3,41
39	14	11,4	15	12,2	21	17,1	51	41,5	22	17,9	3,42
40	5	4,1	23	18,7	42	34,1	46	37,4	7	5,7	3,21
41	7	5,7	12	9,8	54	43,9	35	28,5	15	12,2	3,31
42	5	4,1	13	10,6	33	26,8	52	42,3	20	16,3	3,56
43	8	6,5	15	12,2	39	31,7	38	30,9	23	18,7	3,43
44	5	4,1	17	13,8	50	40,7	42	34,1	9	7,3	3,26
45	5	4,1	30	24,4	59	48	23	18,7	6	4,9	2,95
46	11	8,9	14	11,4	44	35,8	43	35	11	8,9	3,23
47	15	12,2	29	23,6	46	37,4	27	22	6	4,9	2,83
48	4	3,3	13	10,6	35	28,5	52	42,3	19	15,4	3,56
49	6	4,9	12	9,8	43	35	55	44,7	7	5,7	3,36
50	9	7,3	8	6,5	41	33,3	48	39	17	13,8	3,45
51	0	0	7	5,7	49	39,8	54	43,9	13	10,6	3,59
52	4	3,3	19	15,4	50	40,7	38	30,9	12	9,8	3,28
59	4	3,3	21	17,1	46	37,4	40	32,5	12	9,8	3,28
66	31	25,2	33	26,8	38	30,9	16	13	5	4,1	2,43
67	22	17,9	26	21,1	45	36,6	18	14,6	12	9,8	2,77

In the domain of background to language learning and teaching, the teachers' perceptions on each teaching competence are given below.

Teaching Culture: The percentage of teachers who bring some materials that give an insight to target culture was low (27.2%).

Dealing with errors: In dealing with errors a high percentage of teachers thought that errors indicate problems with learning the presented language (50.4%), every error should not be corrected immediately (44.8%) and it is difficult to use different error correction strategies with different learners (36.6%). There was a relatively equal distribution of teachers who thought and did not think that tolerating errors can lead to development of unwanted behavior.

Individual Differences: The percentage of teachers who thought that their students have self confidence about language learning was high (63.4%). On the other hand a low percentage of teachers stated that they taught learning strategies directly (26 %). The percentage of teachers who varied their teaching techniques in order to meet the demands of all learners all the time (70.7%), who knew their own learning styles

and strategies was also high (56.9 % and 59.4% respectively). The distribution of teachers who administer questionnaires or other tools to learn their students learning styles was relatively equal.

Presentation Techniques: In this competence, the percentage of teachers who recalled and applied the way they were taught while they are presenting new language items (43.1%), who preferred giving their learners an opportunity to practice language in a safe language environment where it is difficult to make mistakes (40.7%) and who allowed their learners to find new language when they want to and to use language experimentally and creatively for real communication (58.6%) was high.

Assessment: A high percentage of teachers stated that they made use of choral drilling of pronunciation, repeating new words, and learning conversations by heart for communication practice activities (49.6%). The percentage of teachers who preferred easy to mark assessment activities (41.4%) and who regularly used tests or exams for informal assessment (43.9%) were also high. The percentage of them who made use of portfolio assessment was lower (26.9%) and there was a relatively equal distribution of teachers who guide their students to assess themselves. The teachers who used formal assessment for young learners (50.4%) and who thought formal assessment is more useful than informal assessment (57.7%) was high in percentage. A high percent of teachers stated that they did not let their students know when they are being informally assessed (52.8%). The teachers who stated that they assessed accuracy (54.5%) and communication (40.7%) were also high in percentage.

4.5 Research Question 4

The fourth research question was: “What are the teachers’ perceptions of foreign language teaching competences on the dimension of planning and managing lessons?” To answer this research question, the means and frequencies of the teachers’ responses to questionnaire items which are related to planning and managing lessons were calculated.

Table 20: Frequencies for the dimension planning and managing lessons

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Usually		Always		\bar{X}
Item	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
53	25	20,3	20	16,3	29	23,6	33	26,8	16	13	2,95
54	12	9,8	21	17,1	28	22,8	45	36,6	17	13,8	3,27
55	32	26	25	20,3	25	20,3	22	17,9	19	15,4	2,76
56	23	18,7	17	13,8	36	29,3	35	28,5	12	9,8	2,96
57	11	8,9	19	15,4	48	39	36	29,3	9	7,3	3,10
58	14	11,4	27	22	34	27,6	35	28,5	13	10,6	3,04
60	8	6,5	16	13	41	33,3	44	35,8	14	11,4	3,32
61	8	6,5	18	14,6	43	35	40	32,5	14	11,4	3,27
62	38	30,9	28	22,8	28	22,8	22	17,9	7	5,7	2,44
63	21	17,1	29	23,6	37	30,1	28	22,8	8	6,5	2,78
64	16	13	15	12,2	45	36,6	30	24,4	17	13,8	3,13
65	12	9,8	13	10,6	41	33,3	38	30,9	19	15,4	3,31
68	30	24,4	27	22	32	26	18	14,6	16	13	2,69

In the domain of background to language learning and teaching, the subjects' perceptions on each teaching competence is given below.

Lesson Planning: The percentages of teachers who thought that their course books always tell them what the aims should be (50.4%) was high. A high percentage of teachers find it difficult to add supplementary materials into their syllabuses (42.3%), a low percentage of teachers needed help in using technological materials (17.1%) and a low percentage of teachers stated that they can always make use (24.4%) of language laboratory facilities. A high percentage of teachers stated that they used lesson plans (33.3%) and the teachers' responses to other questionnaire items were relatively equal in distribution for the other items of this competence.

Classroom Management: In this competence, a high percentage of teachers stated that they used Turkish for setting up activities (47.2%), gave instructions in Turkish (43.9%), and thought that their main roles are to inform and manage (46.3%). On the other hand a low percentage of teachers thought that same type of learners performed better in communicative group work activities (23.6 %), and similarly a low percentage of teachers stated that they preferred individual work activities instead of group work because of discipline problems (29.3%). The distribution of teachers who gave personal feedback in front of the class is relatively equal.

4.6 Discussion

When the findings related to demographic variables of teachers are analyzed, it is seen that a high frequency of teachers are graduates of teacher training departments. There are also some teachers who are graduates of departments which do not offer intensive training on foreign language teaching but they are few in number (7). Most of the teachers seem to have had intensive training in teaching foreign languages. There was difference in response to only one questionnaire item when educational background is considered. So it may be concluded that the teachers have similar perceptions of teaching competences with regard to their educational background.

The results related to the second demographic variable indicated a difference between the perceptions of the teachers working in private and state schools. The teachers in private schools have stronger agreement on some competences than their colleagues in state schools. One of the reasons for this difference may be the flexible recruitment policy of the private schools. Private schools often require additional qualities for employing teachers like having attended in-service training programs, certificate programs, MA studies etc.

In terms of years of experience, there were some differences between the perceptions of the teachers. In the perceptions of the teachers with more than 11 years of experience a tendency towards former approaches of ELT was observed. For example, though they stated that they designed tests to assess communication, they had weaker agreement on the importance of teaching functions. A similar tendency was found for the independent variable "type of contract". 17 out of 19 contracted teachers were with 0-5 years of experience and from their responses it can be concluded that they had more up to date knowledge on theories and practices of ELT.

As for the independent variable gender though there were differences between the perceptions of male and female teachers, except from a few questionnaire items, this difference was not significant in all dimensions. Thus it might be concluded that gender does not seem to be a crucial factor affecting the perceptions of the teachers.

From the findings of the study we can conclude that years of experience, type of school and type of contract have effects on teachers' perceptions. Educational background and gender do not appear to be factors affecting teachers' perceptions.

The findings in relation to the second research question indicated that the teachers perceive grammar as the most important component of language teaching process. The high percentage of the teachers who believed that grammar should be taught even to young learners and that learners can not communicate without learning grammar rules supported this conclusion. The findings in relation to four language skills indicated that they still use mechanical drills and exercises and give a high value to the structures of language. This might be due to the fact that the teachers are influenced by the way they learned their foreign languages and tend to maintain the similar structural approach. This conclusion is strongly supported by the high percentage of teachers usually recalling and applying the way they were taught a foreign language. Another reason for the tendency to teach in a more structural approach may be the fact that foreign language exams in Turkey (YDS, KPDS, ÜDS) still assess grammar, translation, reading comprehension and vocabulary competences. These exams which do not assess communicative competence may lead the teachers to over emphasize teaching grammar.

In the competence of teaching pronunciation, the teachers seem to be confident in teaching pronunciation. Their perceptions reflect the contemporary views on teaching pronunciation. They stated that they have a regular focus on pronunciation in their classes and they seem to believe the importance of phonology by heart.

In the part of questionnaire which is related to teaching language skills, some findings are worth discussing. The teachers were asked whether they were focusing on sub skills in their skills lessons. The teachers stated that they integrated writing activities to other skills to teach writing sub skills. But when they were asked which sub skills they focused on, the responses were not sub skills in fact. The situation is better at reading. They stated that they used sub skills like skimming and scanning in reading. However, listening and speaking skills, the teachers seem to be confused in teaching sub skills which are important components of communication. The teachers stated that their focus in speaking lessons is on practicing the recently taught language items. This

finding indicates that teachers mostly teach using PPP approach. However, especially in speaking activities, implementing task based lessons are very important to teach speaking which is oriented to real communication in daily life.

In dealing with errors the findings showed that the teachers are not completely following the methods of structural- behavioristic views. They do not see error as something that has to be avoided at all costs but as indicators of a problem in learning the presented language item. Nevertheless, they find it difficult to use different error correction strategies with different learners. It might be concluded that though they perceive errors as a natural output of the learning process, they do not use different error correction techniques for different learners. But we can not be sure about the reason of their not using different techniques.

The individual characteristics of learners are among the variables affecting success in foreign language teaching. The teachers seem to be confused in terms of learner characteristics. Although their responses showed that they tried to vary their teaching techniques to meet the demands of different learners, the findings related to the usage of assessment tools displayed a conflict. Most of the teachers stated that they did not use assessment tools to diagnose the learning styles of their learners. When they were asked to state their own learning styles and strategies, some of the teachers could not even name their own learning styles. This conflict is resulting from the fact that though they were aware of the importance of the learning styles, they do not exactly know what learning styles are and how they could be treated. Especially teachers who have 11 and more years of experience seem to be in need of additional training on individual differences.

Presentation techniques used in the second language classes, like PPP and TBLT, were also investigated in the research. The results showed that teachers used both approaches. However, there seems to be a problem in using the right approach for the right lesson. For example, they stated that they mostly used PPP approach in speaking lessons. However, making use of TBLT in speaking lessons may allow learners to find new language when they want to and use language experimentally and creatively for real communication.

In assessment component of the questionnaire, there are also findings which are worth discussing. The teachers seem to be confused about formal and informal assessment. They stated that they used tests or exams for informal assessment which are hardly applicable for informal assessment. Assessing young learners is another issue. Assessing young learners with formal assessment techniques is not useful but more than half of the teachers stated that they usually used formal assessment for young learners. Although they stated that they assessed both accuracy and fluency, the teachers have to be well equipped in conducting informal assessment activities which are the most valid tools of assessing fluency. The teachers' tendency for using formal assessment may be resulting from the fact that English proficiency exams in Turkey are generally accuracy focused. Also, the teachers may be recalling the way they were tested while they were learning their foreign language. Portfolio assessment, which is a new idea in assessment, does not seem to be used widely among teachers.

In using language teaching materials, the teachers' main problem seems to be the lack of appropriate materials. Although effectiveness of teaching materials was not a matter of investigation in the questionnaire, within the comments part of the questionnaire, teachers stated that course books supplied by the Ministry of National Education were not effective enough. Some teachers stated that they could not obtain cassette or CDs designed to accompany the listening parts of course books. The ones who could use the audio materials of the course books stated that the listening texts were not compatible with the listening activities in their books. While the questionnaires were being collected from the teachers, they also stated informally that some course books were very old and their focus is on teaching grammar and accuracy instead of communication and fluency. The teachers think that they are competent enough at using technological materials like computers and language laboratory facilities. However, their problem is not having enough language laboratory facilities in their schools.

When the findings related to planning and managing lessons domain were analyzed, we found that the teachers were confused about planning lessons and using course books. We found that the teachers generally followed the aims determined by their course books. However, they have also complained about the content and organization offered by the course books. Some teachers did not prefer adding tasks or activities to support the content provided by their course books. In that case there seems

to be a challenge for teachers. The teachers should re-organize and support the content provided by the course books with additional materials and activities where necessary. The results also showed that they provided instructions in Turkish. This may be useful in some cases, but by insisting on giving instructions in the target language is useful for learners. When the instructions are repeated in several lessons, the learners will get familiar with the instructions in the target language.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1 Conclusion

While many general teaching competences are not discipline specific, there are certain competences that are specific to effective FL teaching. In order to evaluate effective foreign language teaching, behaviors and attributes of effective FL teaching must first be identified, a set of competences must be agreed upon and these must be proved worthwhile in many settings. The first aim of this study was to review the current literature on foreign language teaching competences. Then a set of competences was compiled and the subjects were asked to state their perceptions on each competence.

The literature review indicated no strong agreement on the categorization of the components of FL teaching competences and behaviors. Yet, there is a strong agreement on the main principles. Thus the study takes the main principles that were generally agreed on as the core for the set of competences we proposed.

The results of this study exploring teaching perceptions regarding FL teaching are of interest to several groups: FL teachers, teacher trainers, teacher candidates and those responsible for on going development of FL teachers. Many individual items of the questionnaire indicate a consensus on teaching competences. Of the items on questionnaire, 64% yielded majority agreement among respondents even though the mean response ratings did not obtain a rating of 4.0 or higher. It is proposed here that for those items where 70% or more of the respondents agreed the results are meaningful in terms of emerging professional consensus.

The most confusing results emerged in the following categories; 1- Focus on grammatical form, 2- Error correction, 3-Individual differences, 4-Assessment, 5- Teaching language skills, 6- Supplementary material development and 7- Planning lessons. The most conflicting results emerged especially in the first four fields. Because these are the current topics in FL teaching and are considered as important issues in an effective FL classroom, teachers are aware of their importance but they are not sure about how to treat those points.

The results of the study are of importance to FL teacher preparation and in-service development. Both teachers and teacher trainees can benefit from an awareness

of emerging professional consensus regarding teaching competences that are believed to contribute effective FL teaching and learning. By being made aware of teaching competences before they begin teaching, teacher candidates and novice teachers will be much better prepared for the FL teaching. The results also indicate that for the teachers in practice, a comprehensive in-service teacher training program is needed. Especially the teachers with more than 11 years of experience tend to teach foreign language in a relatively more structural approach. This in-service teacher training program should specifically aim at increasing professional knowledge on teaching language skills, individual characteristics of learners, assessment, and supplementary materials development.

5.2 Suggestions

With respect to the findings of the study mentioned so far, the following suggestions can be made to the academicians, researchers, teacher trainers and people who are responsible for in-service teacher training.

Teacher is the key factor of successful FL teaching and FL teaching competences are crucial for training effective teachers. The academicians working in the field of FL teaching should reach a consensus on FL teaching competences. The curriculum developers of pre-service and in-service FL teacher training programs may benefit from the FL teaching competences and develop curriculums which aim at developing behaviors offered by FL teaching competence research.

Teacher candidates should be aware of teaching competences before they begin teaching. The observation checklists used in teaching practice stage of pre-service FL teacher training process should be updated to reflect the latest improvements in the field of FL teaching competences so that the mentors can more effectively evaluate teacher candidates and provide more comprehensible feedback for them. Teacher candidates observing lessons in school observation courses may also use a similar checklist and discriminate effective teaching behaviors. By this way they may use effective teaching behaviors as a model for themselves. Being aware of latest competences, the teachers may determine their own needs for professional development.

A similar study that would be valuable to the profession would be the incorporating qualitative and quantitative data by using observation after administering questionnaire. It would be interesting to find out the extent to which teacher perceptions and actual classroom practices correlate. A comparative study can be conducted in different settings. The questionnaire can be revised for different cultural backgrounds.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: The Foreign Language Teaching Competences Questionnaire

1. BÖLÜM – KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

A: Eğitim Durumunuz

- a) Eğitim Fak. İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programı
- b) Açık öğretim İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programı
- c) Fen-Edebiyat Fak. İngiliz Dilbilimi – İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Amerikan Kültürü Bölümü. Lütfen belirtiniz.....
- d) Alanı doğrudan İngilizce olmayan bölüm (Örneğin fizik, kimya, işletme, mühendislik gibi bölümler) lütfen belirtiniz.....
- e) Diğer öğretmenlik bölümleri (Sınıf öğret, matematik, fizik öğret v.b.) Lütfen belirtiniz.....

B: Çalışmakta olduğunuz okul türü

- a) İlköğretim okulu
- b) Anadolu lisesi
- c) Anadolu Meslek Lisesi
- d) Meslek Lisesi
- e) Genel Lise

f) Özel okul

C: Mesleki deneyiminiz

- a) 0-5 yıl
- b) 6-10 yıl
- c) 11-15 yıl
- d) 16-20 yıl
- e) 21-yıl ve daha fazla

D: Cinsiyetiniz

- a) Erkek
- b) Bayan

E: Çalışma Statünüz

- a) Sözleşmeli öğretmen
- b) 657 sayılı yasaya tabi öğretmen

	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1-I keep up to date with what parts of language are changing.	5	4	3	2	1
2-I teach grammatical rules in all groups of students (young, teenager, adult learners) since it makes learning easier.	5	4	3	2	1
3-My students can not communicate without knowing grammatical rules.	5	4	3	2	1
4-After introducing a new word, I expect my students to learn it immediately.	5	4	3	2	1
5-Teaching denotation (the most common meaning) of words to beginners is enough.	5	4	3	2	1
6-I teach a wide variety of accents in English.	5	4	3	2	1
7-In lessons, I have a regular focus on different aspects of pronunciation (stress, rhythm, intonation, phonetic transcription, minimal pairs)	5	4	3	2	1
8-I expect my students' pronunciation to be widely understandable	5	4	3	2	1
9-I expect my learners to pronounce the language like a native speaker.	5	4	3	2	1
10-It is not very useful for my students to learn phonemic symbols.	5	4	3	2	1
11-Teaching functions to beginners is not useful since functions need some upper level grammatical structures.	5	4	3	2	1

	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
12-Students do not need to know the names of the functions, if they are competent at grammar, they can communicate.	5	4	3	2	1
13-I regularly assign extensive reading.	5	4	3	2	1
14-I regularly focus on the reading subskills. If you do, please state the subskills you mostly study.....	5	4	3	2	1
15-I use easy comprehension activities in order to make difficult reading texts easier to understand.	5	4	3	2	1
16-I ask my students to keep a writing portfolio including their outlines, drafts and edited versions.	5	4	3	2	1
17-To give feedback to my students' writings, I underline the mistakes and write the correct form.	5	4	3	2	1
18-I give feedback by using error codes for writing.	5	4	3	2	1
19-I mostly integrate writing activities to other skills in order to teach writing subskills. (e.g. note taking in listening, filling in gaps with correct words, writing answers to reading comprehension questions).	5	4	3	2	1
20- I regularly focus on writing subskills. If you do, please state the subskills you mostly study	5	4	3	2	1

	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
21-To practice listening, I regularly use different sources of spoken language (e.g. visitors, DVDs e.t.c.)	5	4	3	2	1
22-I regularly focus on listening subskills. If you do Please state the subskills you mostly study	5	4	3	2	1
23-I use authentic listening texts. Simplified texts are not useful for students.	5	4	3	2	1
24-In speaking lessons, my focus is on guiding my students to utter the recently taught language items in order to practice them.	5	4	3	2	1
25-For fluency, I correct the errors the students make in speaking lessons.	5	4	3	2	1
26-My students have self confidence about language learning in my class.	5	4	3	2	1
27-I bring some materials that give an insight to target culture. If you do, please give some examples	5	4	3	2	1
28-I expect my students to learn immediately.	5	4	3	2	1
29-Learning grammar rules is more important for my students' success.	5	4	3	2	1

	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
30-Errors indicate that my students have problem with learning the presented language.	5	4	3	2	1
31-Tolerating errors can lead to development of unwanted behaviour.	5	4	3	2	1
32-Every error should be corrected immediately.	5	4	3	2	1
33-It's difficult to use different error correction strategies with different learners.	5	4	3	2	1
34-My students use English outside the school.	5	4	3	2	1
35-In order to find out my students' learning styles I ask them questions, give them questionnaires e.t.c. If you do, please state the most common learning styles	5	4	3	2	1
36-I teach learning strategies directly. If you do, please state which ones you teach	5	4	3	2	1
37-I vary my teaching techniques in order to meet the needs of all learners all the time.	5	4	3	2	1
38-I know my learning styles. If you do, please state	5	4	3	2	1

	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
39-I know the learning strategies I mostly apply. If you do, please state	5	4	3	2	1
40-When presenting new language items I recall and apply the way I was taught at school.	5	4	3	2	1
41-I prefer giving my students an opportunity to practice language in a safe learning environment where it is difficult to make mistakes.	5	4	3	2	1
42-I allow my students to find new language when they want to and to use language experimentally and creatively for real communication.	5	4	3	2	1
43-For communication practice activities I mostly use choral drilling of pronunciation, repeating new words, learning conversations by heart.	5	4	3	2	1
44-I prefer assessment activities which are easy to mark.	5	4	3	2	1
45-My students regularly assess themselves (peer editing, peer assessment e.t.c.).	5	4	3	2	1
46-I use tests or exams for informal assessment.	5	4	3	2	1
47-I regularly make use of portfolio assessment.	5	4	3	2	1

	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
48-My students are interested in results of formal assessment. It is more useful than informal assessment.	5	4	3	2	1
49-Since young learners' learning is based on experiencing and communicating, I use formal assessment for young learners.	5	4	3	2	1
50-I don't let my students know that I'm assessing them informally because they may behave unnatural and try to over perform activities.	5	4	3	2	1
51-I usually design my tests in order to assess accuracy.	5	4	3	2	1
52-I usually design my tests in order to assess communication.	5	4	3	2	1
53-I discover my aims while I am teaching the lesson.	5	4	3	2	1
54-My course book always tells me what my aims should be.	5	4	3	2	1
55-I do not use written lesson plans, I plan all my lessons in my head.	5	4	3	2	1
56-Course book units are arranged around a particular topic, (e.g. jobs, sports e.t.c.) so adding tasks or activities breaks the flow of the topic.	5	4	3	2	1
57-My students do not want to know about aims, they just want to get on with the lesson.	5	4	3	2	1

	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
58-Lesson plans don't help me teach, because I always try to respond to learners' needs during the lesson.	5	4	3	2	1
59-I would like to use supplementary materials, but I find it difficult to fit into my syllabus.	5	4	3	2	1
60-I use Turkish for setting up activities and checking understanding.	5	4	3	2	1
61-I have to give instructions in Turkish, because my learners get concentrated better.	5	4	3	2	1
62-I separate weak/strong or shy/dominant learners into different groups since same types perform better in communicative activities.	5	4	3	2	1
63-Pair work and group work activities create discipline problems so it's better to use individual activities.	5	4	3	2	1
64-I give personal feedback in front of the class.	5	4	3	2	1
65-In the class I like to be in control, I think my main roles are to inform and manage.	5	4	3	2	1
66-While using technological materials, I need to get help since it's difficult to operate them.	5	4	3	2	1
67-When necessary, I use language laboratory facilities (using computers for pronunciation practice, using language teaching software e.t.c.)	5	4	3	2	1
68-I teach different levels but I can use the same classroom language for each level.	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix 2: Permission for administering data collection tool

T.C.
EDİRNE VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

SAYI : B.08.4.MEM.4.22.00.04.311.- 5071
KONU : Araştırma Çalışması.

08 MART 2006

VALİLİK MAKAMINA
EDİRNE

Trakya Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğünün;Yabancı Diller Anabilim Dalı, İngiliz Dili Bilim Dalı Tezli Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Egemen AYDOĞDU'un İlimiz merkez ve ilçe okullarımızda görev yapan İngilizce öğretmenlerine"**İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Yabancı Dil Öğretme Yeterlikleri Konusundaki Algıları**" konulu anketi uygulama isteği ile ilgili 06.03.2006 tarih 270-270 sayılı yazısı ilişikte sunulmuştur.

İlimiz Merkez ve İlçe İlköğretim, Ortaöğretim okullarımızda görev yapan İngilizce öğretmenlerine yönelik anketin Eğitim ve Öğretimi aksatmadan okul Müdürleri sorumluluğunda yapılabilmesi için gerekli iznin verilmesini arz ederim.

EK:1-Anket Listesi(3 sayfa)

Hulusi BEŞİROĞLU
Millî Eğitim Müdürü

OLUR
08./03 /2006

Cengizhan AKSOY
Vali a.
Vali Yardımcısı

T.C.
TEKİRDAĞ VALİLİĞİ
Tı Millî-Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı:B.08.4.MEM.59.00.03.320/ 9349
Konu: Anket yapma isteği.

10 NISAN 2006

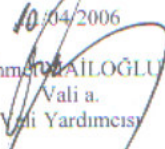
VALİLİK MAKAMINA

Trakya Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı 1048210152 no'lu Tezli Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Egemen AYDOĞDU "İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Yabancı Dil Öğretme Yeterlikleri Konusundaki Algıları" konulu yüksek lisans tez çalışması ile ilgili ekteki forma uygun olarak İlimiz merkez ve ilçelerindeki ilk ve orta dereceli okullarda görev yapan İngilizce öğretmenlerine yönelik anket çalışma yapma isteği Trakya Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğünün 06.04.2006 gün ve 434 sayılı yazılılarıyla teklif edilmekte olup, Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmektedir.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görüldüğü takdirde onaylarınıza arz ederim.


Üner DİLEK
Millî Eğitim Müdürü

OLUR:

10/04/2006

Ahmet AYDOĞLU
Vali a.
Vali Yardımcısı